

## THE

## CRITICAL REVIEW.

For the Month of October, 1778.

*A History of the Military Transactions of the British Nation in Hindostan. Vol. II. Sect. I. and II. [bound in Two Vols.] 4s.*  
*2l. 2s. in Boards. Nourse.*

**I**N our Review for October, 1763, we gave an account of the preceding volume of this History, which traced the affairs of India down to the commencement of the war between the English and the French, in that quarter, in 1756. At this period, therefore, begins the continuation now before us, which is introduced with an inquiry into the rise and progress of the English commerce in the province of Bengal, and with some part of the history of the Mahomedan government.

It appears that the trade of this country was opened to the English by means of a surgeon named Boughton, who in 1636, was sent from Surat to Agra, to attend a daughter of the emperor Shaw Iehan. His endeavours for the cure of the lady proving successful, the emperor, besides other favours, granted him the privilege of a free trade throughout his dominions. Having obtained this indulgence, Boughton immediately proceeded to Bengal, where he intended to purchase goods, and to carry them by sea to Surat. He had no sooner arrived in the former of those places, than he was employed to cure a favourite woman belonging to the nabob of the province; which having effected, the latter prevailed upon him to remain in the country; giving him at the same time a handsome stipend, and confirming the privilege that had been granted by the emperor, with a promise to extend it to all others of the English nation who should come to Bengal. Boughton sent an ac-

count of his success to the English governor of Surat, by whose advice the company in 1640 sent two ships from England to Bengal, the agents of which being introduced to the nabob by Boughton, were kindly received, and assisted in their mercantile transactions. The advantages which accrued from this intercourse were such as gave encouragement to prosecute the trade, and to establish a regular commerce with the inhabitants of the province.

The English soon after built a factory at Hughley, the principal port of the province, situated on the western arm of the Ganges, about a hundred miles from the sea. They were, however, not permitted to erect fortifications, or to guard themselves with such a military force as might excite any jealousy in the government, being allowed to maintain only an ensign and thirty men.

Notwithstanding the advantage which the English had acquired, they were as yet entirely dependent on the government of Bengal, which, either by seizing the goods that were purchased, or by prohibiting them from being carried to the place of exportation, might at any time extremely violate the interest of the company. On this account, the latter kept its factories in Bengal dependent on the presidency of Maorais, where was a fort and garrison, to which, on any sudden emergency, the settlers in Bengal might resort for advice and assistance.

For some years the English carried on their trade in this province without any molestation, but afterwards the government, either disavowing the patents that had been granted to Boughton, or annihilating their operation by the narrow construction which they now put upon them, the settlers were obliged to pay the same duties with other merchants. Nor was this the only infraction of former stipulations that they began to experience. The nabob henceforth assumed a more arbitrary conduct towards them, and their commerce was frequently interrupted by unusual exertions of despotism.

Against these evils our author observes, that there were only two remedies, namely, war or retreat, either of which could not fail of proving detrimental to the company, considering that the Bengal trade, notwithstanding the various restraints imposed by the nabob, was still very lucrative. For forty years therefore the English company attempted no military resistance.

But the peaceable acquiescence of the English rather increased than diminished the exactions imposed by the governors of the province; besides, that the acts of oppression exercised by those inferior despots were abetted by the emperor at Surat.

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Determined therefore to try the effect of arms, the company in the year 1685, with the approbation of king James II. fitted out two fleets, one of which was ordered to cruise at the bar of Surat, on all vessels belonging to the Mogul's subjects, and the other designed not only to commit hostilities by sea at the mouth of the Ganges, but likewise carried six hundred regular troops, in order to attack the nabob of Bengal by land.

The conduct of this war was entrusted to Job Chanock, the company's principal agent at Hughley, a man of courage, but void of military experience. The chief object of this enterprize was to attack Chittagan, situated on the eastern shore of the bay of Bengal, opposite the road of Ballasore. In the course of the expedition, however, one vessel of the fleet was lost; the largest ship, with another, were not able to make their passage; and the rest did not arrive before the month of October, 1686; by which time the factory of Hughley was invested by a body of the nabob's troops. When the vessels arrived, Chanock, with the assistance of the troops, who amounted to about four hundred and sixty men, gave battle to the enemy, and drove them out of the town; a truce ensued, which proving of short duration, the Moors were a second time defeated. They prepared, however, to blockade the factory again; to avoid which, Chanock, marching down the western bank of the river, destroyed all the magazines of salt and rice, which he found in his way between Hughley and the island of Ingelee; but pitching his camp here in the most unhealthy part of the province, in the space of three months he lost by sickness three hundred Europeans, which was two thirds of his whole force.

The misfortune attending this expedition was compensated by the success of the fleet that had been sent out to Surat, which greatly distressed the trade of the Mogul's subjects, and took from them prizes to the amount of a million sterling money. The clamour raised by the merchants in consequence of this disaster, induced the emperor to send one of his officers from Delhi, with orders to hear the complaints of the English, and to mitigate the oppressions which they had suffered. Hostilities soon after ceased; and by a treaty signed in August, 1687, it was stipulated that the English should not only be permitted to return to all their factories in the province, but might likewise erect docks and magazines at Ulabarca, a village situated on the western bank, about fifty miles from the mouth of the river.

This treaty was no sooner ratified than the war at Surat broke out afresh, and the nabob of Bengal not only gave up

the English trade to the rapine of his officers, but demanded a very large sum, as an indemnification for the loss which the country had sustained by the late hostilities. In consequence of some unexpected events, however, an accommodation again took place between the contending parties without this requisition being granted; and the company received a patent from the emperor, allowing them to trade free of customs, on condition of paying annually the sum of three thousand roupées.

In 1696, an insurrection was commenced by the rajahs on the western side of the river Hughley, within whose jurisdiction were situated the principal settlements of the English, French, and Dutch, all which immediately augmenting their respective forces, declared for the nabob; of whom they at the same time requested permission to put their factories into a state of defence. The nabob ordered them in general terms to defend themselves; and they, considering this order as implying a grant of their request, proceeded with all expedition to raise walls and bastions round their factories; of which that of the English was at Calcutta, where they had built their principal magazines. Such was the origin of the three European forts in the province of Bengal, the first that ever were suffered to be erected by foreigners within the Mogul empire.

During some years from this period, the fortune of the company was influenced not only by the affairs of India, but by the coalition of the commercial parties, which at this time took place in England: and the events which ensued, after the insurrection of the rajahs, are thus related in the History.

The news of this rebellion alarmed Aurengzebe himself so much, that he sent one of his grandsons, Azim-al-Shan, with an army, to superintend the three governments of Bengal, Behar, and Orixa. This prince was son of Mahomed Mauzm, who reigned after his father Aurengzebe, with the title of Behader Shah; and Azim-al-Shan himself seems likewise, even at this distant period, to have had an eye to the throne: for he came into Bengal with a resolution to amass money by every means. This avaricious disposition the English plied with presents, which in 1698 obtained his permission to purchase from the zemindar, or Indian proprietor, the towns of Soota-nutty, Calcutta, and Govindpore, with their districts, extending about three miles along the eastern bank of the river Hughley, and about one mile inland: the prince, however, reserved the annual fine of 1195 rupees, which this ground used to pay to the nabob of the province. But at this time, when the English settlements seemed on the point of emerging from continued difficulties to a state of prosperity, the erection of a new East-India Company, in opposition to the old, renewed all

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the former evils. The new company established their factory at Hughley, and the competition between the respective agents was carried on with the same animosity as exasperated their principals in England, which exposed the concerns of both to the impositions of the nabob, and the merchants of Bengal, who took every advantage of this rivalry. However, the spirit of commerce, which knows no resentments that are prejudicial to its interest, soon reconciled the contending parties in England, and produced a coalition, of which the preliminaries were adjusted in 1698; but the final union did not take place till seven years after: this time being necessary to blend the different concerns of both companies into one common stock.

In the mean time, the settlement of Calcutta had attracted such a number of inhabitants, as excited the jealousy of the governor of Hughley, who, pretending that he should be punished for suffering so many of the Mogul's subjects to withdraw themselves from his jurisdiction, threatened to send a cadi, or Mahomedan judge, and officers of the police, to administer justice amongst the natives living under the English flag. The measure would have renewed the same inconveniences, which had forced the English to quit Hughley: it was therefore counteracted by a bribe given to Azam-al-Shan, who forbade the governor of Hughley from proceeding in his intentions. By this constant attention to money, Azam-al-Shan in three years amassed three millions of pounds sterling, which he carried with him out of the province: but he left behind him his son Furrukshir to get more; who, in 1713, gained the throne, after his father had perished in disputing it with his brothers.

The union of the two companies, by augmenting the stock, increased the trade, and enlarged the views of the direction: who at the same time, warned by the late examination of the company's affairs in parliament, exerted themselves with zeal and intelligence, in order to confound the clamours of those who exclaimed against the institution of an East-India company, as a monopoly detrimental to the mercantile interest of the nation. The commerce of Bengal more especially became the object of their attention: the subordinate factories of Cossimbuzar, Dacca, and Ballasore, which had been abandoned, were now resettled: the exports and imports were doubled in value and in quantity: and the garrison of Calcutta was augmented to 300 men: all which the goverment of Bengal, contrary to its usual maxims, beheld without repugnance, and even without demanding money as the price of its forbearance and favour. This was the longest term of repose from vexations, which the English had experienced since their first establishment in the province; and the increasing importance of the colony induced the company in 1707 to withdraw the settlements in it, from their former dependence on Madrass, and to declare Calcutta a presidency accountable only to the direction in England.'

The tranquility which the company now enjoyed was in a short time disturbed by the nabob Jaffier Khan, at this time appointed governor of Bengal, and who was better enabled to take cognizance of their affairs by having removed the seat of government from Dacea to Muxadavad, in the centre of the province. Mixing policy with oppression, he greatly restrained the freedom of their commerce, without openly violating the privileges which they had obtained from Aurengzebe and Azim-al Shan. In order to obtain a redress of their grievances, the presidency of Calcutta, in the year 1713, proposed to the company in England the sending an embassy, supported by a valuable present, to the great mogul. The expedient was accordingly adopted, but would in all probability have proved fruitless, on account of the animosity which prevailed among the ministers at the court of Delhi, had it not been for an incident that conciliated the favour of the mogul. This prince being infected with a distemper unusual in a seraglio, and entertaining a diffidence in the skill of his own physicians, was advised to employ the surgeon of the English embassy, by whom he was in a few weeks perfectly cured; in gratitude for which service, the emperor promised to grant the ambassadors any indulgence which might be reckoned consistent with the dignity of his government. Six months elapsed, however, before the ambassadors could be admitted to present their petition, owing to the festivities which accompanied the emperor's marriage with the daughter of Jasseign, the principal rajah of the Rajpoot nation. The petition contained several articles, which, after various delays occasioned by the intrigues of the vizir, at length obtained the royal approbation. One of those articles was, that the company should be allowed to purchase thirty-seven towns in Bengal, which would give them a district extending ten miles south of Calcutta along the banks of the river Hugley, the passage of which might be easily commanded by the erection of batteries or redoubts; and what added to the value of the acquisition was, that the revenue of the territory would be sufficient to defray the charge of its protection. The consequences of so advantageous a grant were beheld with indignation by the nabob Jaffier, who had endeavoured from the beginning to counteract the purpose of the embassy; but not daring openly to dispute the mogul's orders, he prevailed, by secret intrigues, with the holders of the land, not to part with it to the company upon any terms which might be offered. The agents of the latter, in the mean time, confiding too much in the sanction of the mogul's authority, overlooked the more efficacious means of bribing the nabob to co-operate with their designs; and

and thus the most important concession which had been obtained by the embassy, was entirely frustrated. Jaffier however admitted the immunity of the company's trade, which no longer paid any customs in the province.

From this time the English company continued to reap the fruits of the commercial privileges they had lately obtained, till the year 1756, when by the rupture between Great Britain and France, and by the intestine divisions in India, it necessarily became involved in all the calamities of war. The place in which these were most severely felt was Calcutta, where the English factory becoming the prey of an exasperated and rapacious nabob, a scene of barbarity ensued, almost unexampled in history. The memory of this horrid transaction is preserved by our author in the following strong and pathetic narrative.

‘ At five the nabob entered the fort, accompanied by his general Meer Jaffier, and most of the principal officers of his army. He immediately ordered Omichund and Kissendass to be brought before him, and received them with civility; and having bid some officers go and take possession of the company's treasury, he proceeded to the principal apartment of the factory, where he sat in state and received the compliments of his court and attendants in magnificent expressions of his prowess and good fortune. Soon after he sent for Mr. Holwell, to whom he expressed much resentment at the presumption of the English in daring to defend the fort, and much dissatisfaction at the smallness of the sum found in the treasury, which did not exceed 50,000 rupees. Mr. Holwell had two other conferences with him on this subject before seven o'clock, when the nabob dismissed him with repeated assuances, on the word of a soldier, that he should suffer no harm.

‘ Mr. Holwell, returning to his unfortunate companions, found them assembled and surrounded by a strong guard. Several buildings on the north and south sides of the fort were already in flames, which approached with so thick a smoke on either hand, that the prisoners imagined their enemies had caused this conflagration, in order to suffocate them between the two fires. On each side of the eastern gate of the fort extended a range of chambers adjoining to the curtain; and before the chambers a varanda, or open gallery: it was of arched masonry, and intended to shelter the soldiers from the sun and rain, but being low, almost totally obstructed the chambers behind from the light and air; and whilst some of the guard were looking in other parts of the factory for proper places to confine the prisoners during the night, the rest ordered them to assemble in ranks under the varanda on the right hand of the gateway; where they remained for some time with so little suspicion of their impending fate, that they laughed among themselves at the

seeming oddity of this disposition, and amused themselves with conjecturing what they should next be ordered to do. About eight o'clock, those who had been sent to examine the rooms reported that they found none fit for the purpose. On which the principal officer commanded the prisoners to go into one of the rooms which stood behind them along the varanda. It was the common dungeon of the garrison, who used to call it *the black hole*. Many of the prisoners knowing the place, began to expostulate: upon which the officer ordered his men to cut down those who hesitated; on which the prisoners obeyed. But before all were within, the room was so thronged, that the last entered with difficulty. The guard immediately closed and locked the door; confining 146 persons in a room not 20 feet square, with only two small windows, and these obstructed by the varanda.

It was the hottest season of the year; and the night uncommonly sultry even at this season. The excessive pressure of their bodies against one another, and the intolerable heat which prevailed as soon as the door was shut, convinced the prisoners that it was impossible to live through the night in this horrible confinement; and violent attempts were immediately made to force the door; but without effect, for it opened inward: on which many began to give a loose to rage. Mr. Holwell, who had placed himself at one of the windows, exhorted them to remain composed both in body and mind, as the only means of surviving the night, and his remonstrances produced a short interval of quiet; during which he applied to an old jemautdar, who bore some marks of humanity in his countenance, promising to give him a thousand rupees in the morning, if he would separate the prisoners into two chambers. The old man went to try, but returning in a few minutes, said it was impossible; when Mr. Holwell offered him a larger sum; on which he retired once more, and returned with the fatal sentence, that no relief could be expected, because the nabob was asleep, and no one dared to wake him.

In the mean time every minute had increased their sufferings. The first effect of their confinement was a profuse and continued sweat, which soon produced intolerable thirst, succeeded by excruciating pains in the breast, with difficulty of breathing little short of suffocation. Various means were tried to obtain more room and air. Every one stripped off his cloaths; every hat was put in motion; and these methods affording no relief, it was proposed that they should all sit down on their hams at the same time, and after remaining a little while in this posture, rise all together. This fatal expedient was thrice repeated before they had been confined an hour; and every time, several unable to rear themselves up again, fell, and were trampled to death by their companions. Attempts were again made to force the door, which, failing as before, redoubled their rage; but the thirst increasing, nothing but water! water! became soon

soon after the general cry. The good jemantdar immediately ordered some skins of water to be brought to the windows ; but, instead of relief, his benevolence became a more dreadful cause of destruction ; for the sight of the water threw every one into such excessive agitations and ravings, that, unable to resist this violent impulse of nature, none could wait to be regularly served, but each with the utmost ferocity battled against those who were likely to get it before him ; and in these conflicts many were either pressed to death by the efforts of others, or suffocated by their own. This scene, instead of producing compassion in the guard without, only excited their mirth : and they held up lights to the bars, in order to have the diabolical satisfaction of seeing the deplorable contentions of the sufferers within ; who, finding it impossible to get any water whilst it was thus furiously disputed, at length suffered those who were nearest to the windows, to convey it in their hats to those behind them. It proved no relief either to their thirst, or other sufferings ; for the fever increased every moment with the increasing depravity of the air in the dungeon, which had been so often respired, and was saturated with the hot and deleterious effluvia of putrifying bodies ; of which the stench was little less than mortal. Before midnight, all who were alive and had not partaken of the air at the windows, were either in a lethargic stupefaction, or raving with delirium. Every kind of invective and abuse was uttered, in hopes of provoking the guard to put an end to their miseries, by firing into the dungeon ; and whilst some were blaspheming their Creator with the frantic execrations of torment in despair, heaven was implored by others with wild and incoherent prayers ; until the weaker, exhausted by these agitations, at length laid down quietly, and expired on the bodies of their dead or agonizing friends. Those who still survived in the inward part of the dungeon, finding that the water had afforded them no relief, made a last effort to obtain air, by endeavouring to scramble over the heads of those who stood between them and the windows ; where the utmost strength of every one was employed for two hours, either in maintaining his own ground, or in endeavouring to get that of which others were in possession. All regards of compassion and affection were lost, and no one would recede or give way for the relief of another. Faintness sometimes gave short pauses of quiet, but the first motion of any one renewed the struggle through all, under which ever and anon some one sunk to rise no more. At two o'clock not more than fifty remained alive. But even this number were too many to partake of the saving air, the contest for which and life, continued until the morn, long implored, began to break ; and, with the hope of relief, gave the few survivors a view of the dead. The survivors then at the window, finding that their intreaties could not prevail on the guard to open the door, it occurred to Mr. Cooke, the secretary of the council, that Mr. Holwell, if alive, might have more influence

to obtain their relief ; and two of the company undertaking the search, discovered him, having still some signs of life ; but when they brought him towards the window, every one refused to quit his place, excepting captain Mills, who with rare generosity offered to resign his ; on which the rest likewise agreed to make room. He had scarcely begun to recover his senses, before an officer, sent by the nabob, came and enquired if the English chief survived ; and soon after the same man returned with an order to open the prison. The dead were so thronged, and the survivors had so little strength remaining, that they were employed near half an hour in removing the bodies which lay against the door, before they could clear a passage to go out one at a time ; when of one hundred and forty-six who went in, no more than twenty-three came out alive, the ghastliest forms that ever were seen alive. The nabob's troops beheld them, and the havock of death from which they had escaped, with indifference ; but did not prevent them from removing to a distance, and were immediately obliged, by the intolerable stench, to clear the dungeon, whilst others dug a ditch on the outside of the fort, into which all the dead bodies were promiscuously thrown.

On the coast of Coromandel, at this time the troops of the English and French governments were nearly equal, each consisting of about two thousand Europeans, and ten thousand seapoys. The presidency of Madras having come to the resolution of sending some troops for the recovery of Bengal, colonel Clive was appointed to the command of this expedition. His force, consisting of nine hundred Europeans, and fifteen hundred seapoys, embarked on board the squadron commanded by the admirals Watson and Pocock. The colonel's instructions recommended the attack of Muxadavad, if the nabob continued obstinate to the remonstrances of the English ; and they also recommended the capture of the French settlements at Chandernagore, in case the news of a war with France should arrive while the troops remained in Bengal.

This effort to recover the settlements in Bengal left the forces of Madras too much diminished to detach to such a distance as Golcondah a body of troops sufficient to assist Salabadjing effectually against the French army under the command of Mr. Bussy ; and as a few, instead of being of any service, might be totally cut off, it was determined to send none to that quarter. At the same time that this army had disabled the presidency of Madras from distressing the French affairs in the Decan, it left them without the power of prosecuting any military enterprize of importance in the province of Arcot.

The ships which sailed from Madras on the 10th of October, for the relief of Bengal, were separated on their passage,

page, but arrived in little more than two months at Fulta, excepting the Cumberland and Marlborough, the want of which greatly reduced the force of the armament. For the former was not only the largest ship in the squadron, but had on board two hundred and fifty of the European troops; and the greater part of the artillery had been imprudently shipped on board of the Marlborough.

A detachment which had been sent with major Kilpatrick had arrived at Fulta on the second of August; but it was not deemed a sufficient force for the execution of any enterprize; and the vessels which were then assembled at that place being too much crowded to receive the men on board, the latter were obliged to encamp on the swampy grounds near the town, where sickness prevailed so much among them, that of the whole detachment, which originally consisted of two hundred and thirty men, one half was dead, and of the remainder not more than thirty were able for duty at the arrival of admiral Watson.

On the twenty-seventh of December the armament left Fulta, and the next day anchored at Mayapore, a town situated ten miles below the fort of Buz-buzia. This fort admiral Watson determined to attack immediately; and there being reason to imagine that the garrison would abandon it, a resolution was formed of laying an ambuscade, to intercept their retreat towards Calcutta. The troops were accordingly disposed for this purpose, when in consequence of a security, of which they ought to have been jealous, they were attacked by the enemy during night, and almost totally routed, but at length obliged the Indians to retire; and the armament soon afterwards retook the fort of Calcutta.

Thus ended the expedition for the relief of Bengal, with which we shall at present conclude our account of this perspicuous and faithful history.

[ *To be continued.* ]

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Vida's Game of Chess. Translated into English. 4to. 2s.  
Kearsley.

THE original of this piece was written in Latin, about the year 1540, by Vida, bishop of Alba, one of the principal ornaments of the age of pope Leo X. His poems, all of which are in the Latin language, are various, and some of them much admired. But in all he has borrowed so largely from the poets of ancient Rome, as in a great measure to invalidate his claim to the character of an original genius.

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This plagiarism is carried to so great a length in the poem upon Chess, that the expressions, and even the complete lines, which are transferred from Virgil, form no inconsiderable part of the piece.

The translator seems to think, that this is a defect.—In other poems we readily allow, that it is a derogation from their merit. But in a mock heroic poem, like the present, parody may be admitted with the greatest propriety. We are pleased to see the majestic lines of Virgil ingeniously diverted to a new subject, and a new sense, in a work of pleasantry and humour.

Though Scaliger calls *The Silk-worm*, ‘rex librorum Vidæ,’ the king of Vida’s works \*, yet others have asserted, that his *Chess* is his capital performance. However this may be, the invention, which is displayed through the whole conduct of the game, the ease with which the most intricate descriptions are finished, together with that serious and important air, which is spread over every circumstance, has raised it very high in the estimation of the most judicious critics.

The Latin name for chess is *scacchia*, which some derive from the German word *schach*, *latro*, the game being frequently called, *latronum* or *latrunculorum ludus*. Du Fresne derives it from the Persic word, *scach*, *a king*: either because a king is the chief mover in this game, or because it is a game fit for kings. The learned Hyde, who has written a treatise on this subject, calls it *shahiludium*; and derives it likewise from the Persic word *shah*, *a king*. It was invented, he says, in India, and introduced into Persia in the sixth century.

The translation, which is now offered to the public, is a respectable performance. The author describes the various evolutions of both armies, with perspicuity, and a considerable degree of elegance. And though his work must inevitably want one of the principal beauties of the original, the splendor of the Virgilian style, yet it may be read with pleasure; especially by those, who are acquainted with the game.

The following lines will be a sufficient specimen :

• The battle burns around : each mighty tow'r  
Sustain'd on high unwieldy moves to war :  
On every side the twanging bow-strings sound,  
And from the plain the horses' hoofs rebound,  
Both armies meet the foe with equal rage,  
And crowd the field of fight. At once engage  
The daring chiefs of either martial train,  
The gathering troops around the fight sustain,  
All join the war in one promiscuous tide,  
And chance and valor o'er the field preside.

Victorious now along the chequer'd plain  
 They drive the foe : now wheeling back again  
 Pursued they fly ; by turns they drive, they yield,  
 The tide of conquest fluctuates o'er the field.  
 Thus when the tempests from their prison free,  
 Put forth their rapid wings, and stir the sea :  
 Loud roars the flood ; with forceful blasts they sweep  
 The vast Atlantic or Ionian deep :  
 The rolling billows gain upon the coast,  
 Then back revolving in the waves are lost.'

In this extract, and in many other places, *either* is improperly used for *each*.

In the sixteenth line instead of,

' Put forth their rapid wings, and stir the sea,'  
 We would propose this alteration :  
 ' Expand their rapid wings, and rouse the sea.'

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*Villare Cantianum*; or Kent surveyed and illustrated. By Thomas Phillipott, Esq. Fol. 2d Edit. Corrected. 1l. 1s. Baldwin.

NO county in England has been described by more antiquarians than Kent. Bishop Nicolson has given us an account of the following books published on that subject, in his time. *Itinerarium Cantiae*, by Leland. *A Perambulation of Kent*, by Lambarde, 1570. *Villare Cantianum*, by Philipott, 1659, 1664. *A Survey of Kent*, by Kilburn, 1659. *A Treatise of the Roman Ports and Forts*, by Somner, 1693. *Antiquities of Canterbury*, by Somner, 1640, &c.

In his account of Philipott the bishop says: ' Philipott's *Villare Cantianum* was not written by Thomas Philipott, whose name it bears ; but by his father John, Somerset herald ; who is only owned to be the author of the additional history of the high sheriffs of the county : and what faith (a learned countryman of his, Dr. Kennet, puts the question in my mouth) can be given to him, that could rob his own father of the credit of his book ?' Eng. Hist. Library, c. 2.

On this quotation we must observe, that John Philipott either was, or was not, the author of this work. If he was, its credit is not affected by the character and conduct of the son. If he was not, Dr. Kennet's reflection is unjust.

But whoever was the author, we must acknowledge, that, though he is a tedious and an affected writer, he seems to have been an industrious antiquarian ; and has collected from ancient records, charters, rolls, and registers, a great variety of facts, which would otherwise have been buried in oblivion.

We

We can give our readers no extract from this work, which would be more likely to attract their notice, than the following observations on the urns of the ancients.

‘ At this parish of Newington, not long since, were digged up many Roman urns, not far distant from the high way or common passage, it being agreeable unto Roman practice to inter in those places, where their monuments might be obvious almost to every eye, memorials of themselves, and memento’s of mortality unto living passengers, whom the epitaphs of great ones were fain to beg to stay and look upon them. Some of these were of a larger, and some again of a narrower capacity, it being customary amongst the Romans, for the servants and clients to obtain repositories for their remains in urns of a lesser; for the masters and patrons to slumber in urns of a more wide and spacious dimension; and many were so curious, that they contrived vast family urns to continue their living relations, wherein the ashes of their nearest kindred and friends, at least some parcels of them, might, as in some common exchequer, be treasured up, that so the union in life might be multiplied and inforced by an amicable correspondence, even in the place of sepulture; thus the ashes of Domitian were mingled with those of Julia, and those of Achilles slept in the same urn with those of his Patroclus. That this usage or practice of the Romans extracted its pedigree from Greece is manifest. For all authors that have taken a prospect of the Grecian rites of funerals, consent that those of Megara shut up the bones of four or five persons in the narrow confines of one repertory, or sepulchral urn. It is farther observable, that these urns discovered at Newington, where several of them embroidered with particular inscriptions; one had Severianus pater insculped upon it, another was endorsed with Priscian, and a third with Fulvius Linus; this also was usual amongst the Romans, not only to supercribe the names of those whose remains were lodged within, but likewise sometimes to devote their dust to those deities they called topical gods, such as were here, Deus Viterineus, Deus Morguntis, Deus Mounus, Deus Civitatis Brigantum, Camulus Deus Sanctus, Gadonus, &c. Sometimes they endorsed D. M. that is, Diis Manibus, and then we often meet with patera’s, or sacrificing dishes, lachrymatories, vessels of oils, and other aromatical libations, which age and a long date of time had condensed into the consistencies of gellies; sometimes again their urns were placed or situated near some bound or landmark, and then their ashes inclosed, were consecrated to the peculiar protection of Deus Terminus, and were cloistered in a repository or vessel, much in figure or resemblance like a Roman

urn,

urn, but only the cover was more wide and deep at top, and this they stiled Arca Finalis. Besides these at Newington, there are many other examples of such endorsements amongst the Romans; I shall cull out some few, Marcus Plautius, who slew himself for the love of his wife Orestilla, who deceased at Tarrentum in her passage to Asia, that so he might accompany her in death, as he had done in life, had his ashes blended together with hers in one urn, whilst this subscription without adorned their mingled dust, "The two lovers." Not many years since there was digged up, near Coggeshall, in Essex, an urn, which offered up to the spectators view this inscription, Coccilli M. that is Coccilli Manibus. And not many years before at the Bath was represented to public inspection, an urn, with this endorsement insculped, Vibia Jucunda An. XXX. hic sepulta; I could discover more of this nature; but I return. In these Newington urns, as my intelligence instructs me, there were traced out many pieces of Roman coin, it being customary amongst that nation, not only to inclose coin or money, both of consular and imperial stamp, by which the date of their friends decease, might be hinted to an intelligent observation; but likewise fragments of those things the deceased in his life time did particularly affect, at namely, spearheads, pieces of darts and swords, broken armour, the cassis or helmet, shields, goblets, berill rings, besides a great number of gems, with heads of gods and goddesses, and the portraiture of several creatures, fashioned out of agate and amber. Now if any will inquire of me, when this custom of burning the dead, and after depositing their dust in sepulchral urns, became to be in use among the Romans? I confess I am satisfied the time is uncertain, though I dare positively aver, it was originally transported from Greece, where it was used, though with more formality, long before it was adopted into the usages of this nation. For first the Grecians burned only the bodies of those of more eminent account, but denied it to those who were of baser alloy, or of obscurer fame; as likewise they did to deceased infants; to those who were blasted or destroyed with lightning, because they superstitiously conceived them enemies to the powers above; to those who had impiously laid violent hands upon themselves; and lastly, to those who had by a perfidious apostacy, declared themselves to be deserters and betrayers of their country. Secondly, they burned only the flesh of the body, reserving the bones to be laid up in chests of repertories, which they called Thecae, which amongst the Romans had the title of Ossuaria, bestowed on them. Thirdly, they esteemed it so great an honour for any person to sleep in his own native country, that if he deceased

ceased in any foreign region, which was in amity with them, they there, after their customary manner burned his body, and with much solemnity transported his relicks to the place of his nativity, and at every cross way had their appointed feasts, which were made at the expence of the relations and friends of the defunct, which they called their Compitalia.

Lastly, they strewed flowers on the urns and repositories of the dead, and adorned them with ribbands, as they did the urn of Philopoemen; but they more particularly affected the strewing of myrtle and amaranthus, on the ashes of their departed relations, as the Romans did that of the rose; yet both of them did concur in the composition of the funeral pile, which was furnished and made up of rosemary, larynx, yew, cypres, and fir, wherein it is probable were couched some tacit hints of their surviving hopes; and in which mysterious hieroglyphics, as being trees which were perpetually verdant, were wrapped up in some secret inferences of a future resurrection. That this custom of burning the dead did afterwards by an universal imitation extend and spread itself to other nations. That the druids and ruling priests were accustomed to burn their dead is expressed by Pomponius. That they held that practice in Gaul, Cæsar expressly delivers. That burning the dead was used in Sarmatia, is affirmed by Gaguinus. That the Swedes and Gothlanders did frequently commit their princes and more eminent persons to the fire, is delivered by Saxo and Olaus. That this was the old German practice, is also asserted by Tacitus. And that it was customary among the Danes, several urns, discovered in Jutland and Sleswick, not many years since, do easily evince, which contained not only bones, but many other substances in them, as knives, pieces of iron, brass and wood, and one of Norway a brass gilded Jews-harp. When this custom of burning the dead languished into disuse, is uncertain; but that it began to vanish, upon the dawning of christianity, as vapours and mists scatter before a morning sun, is without controversy; but when the light of it did more vigorously reflect, like a meridign beam, on all the gloomy corners and recesses of paganism and infidelity; then this use of urn-burial, was wholly superseded, and found a tomb itself in the more sober and severer practice of christianity. And thus much shall be said concerning these urns digged up at Newington.'

In an Appendix the author has given the derivation of the names of almost all the towns and villages in Kent; which to those who have a taste for etymological learning, will be no unacceptable performance.

*An Harmony of the Gospels: in which the original Text is disposed after Le Clerc's general Manner; with such various Readings at the Foot of the Page, as have received Wetstein's Sanction in his Folio Edition of the Greek Testament. Observations are subjoined, tending to settle the Time and Place of the several Transactions, to establish the Series of Facts, and to reconcile seeming Inconsistencies. By William Newcome, D. D. Bishop of Ossory. Folio. 1l. 7s. in boards. Cadell.*

AS the history of our Saviour is related by four different writers, it is difficult for common readers to gain a regular idea of his various transactions, in the order of time. Upon this account a great number of authors have composed Concords and Harmonies of the Gospels. Some have formed one uniform narrative out of all the four evangelists, by adopting the text of Matthew, Mark, Luke, or John, separately and singly, as it has happened to be the fullest, or the most expressive. Such is that Harmony, or, more properly speaking, that history of our Saviour, which is ascribed to Mr. Locke \*. Others have ranged the words of every evangelist in a regular series, or subordination, stating every fact, and every discourse, in the words of each of them successively: as Dr. Macknight. Others have thrown all the parallel passages of the four evangelists into collateral columns: this is the scheme, which is pursued in the Harmony now before us.

In this work the learned author has attempted, after many others, not only to harmonize the gospels, but to shew the consistency of the evangelists, and to fix the time and place of the transactions recorded by them, as exactly as these points can be determined by internal evidence.

In pursuance of this design he has attended to every notation of time and place, and endeavoured to enter into the manner of the evangelical writers; observing, that particles, often thought to express an immediate connection, are used with latitude; that the evangelists are more intent on representing the substance of what is spoken, than the words of the speaker; that they neglect accurate order in the detail of particular incidents, though they pursue a good general method; that detached and distant events are sometimes joined together on account of a sameness in the scene, the person, the cause, or the consequences; and that in such concise histories as the gospels,

\* This work, though formed on the plan of Garthwaite's Harmony, published in 1630, appears by its peculiar correspondence with Locke's Reasonableness of Christianity, to be the production of that eminent writer. See the Preface to the last excellent edition of Locke's works.

transitions are often made from one fact to another, without any intimation, that important matters intervened.

The sacred history, as this judicious writer observes, is not liable to any just objection from this mode of narration. The veracity of the evangelists is not affected by it, when their manner of writing is understood; and their histories afford the same moral and religious instruction, whether their method is loose or exact. If, on this account, objections are more easily started, and it becomes more difficult to reconcile seeming variations, and to frame such materials into a regular body of history; on the other hand, the evangelists are more scrupulously examined and compared, they are studied jointly, as well as separately, their consistency strikes us more after an attentive investigation, all suspicion of compact and collusion is removed, and the independence of their testimony is established, as far as antiquity asserts it.

It is however very satisfactory to remark, that, when there is any clear note of time or place in one of the evangelists, the rest may always be brought to a perfect agreement with him, - by easy and natural criticism: one affirming his order, which the others often neglect, but never contradict.

But all attempts to reconcile the evangelists, as to the general series of their facts, will, our author says, be in vain undertaken by those, who consider St. Matthew as adhering to the strictness of historical order. This rock was long since pointed out by bishop Richardson \*, to whom a most eminent judge of learning (archbishop Usher) gives this great elogium, that he was 'vir eruditissimus, & in sacrarum literarum studiis longè exercitatus;' and whose harmony Mr. Whiston calls a noble attempt; and asserts, that the true order of the evangelists had been better stated by him, than by any other.

Le Clerc thus speaks of the bishop's Harmony: 'Res ipsa ostendit posse commodissimè ad Lucæ ordinem referri cæteros evangelistas; quod et ante nos ostendit vir eruditus Johannes Richardson, Ardachadensis olim in Hiberniâ episcopus, cuius harmoniam potissimum secuti sumus.' And Pilkington says, 'he seems happily to have first discovered the method, that must generally be pursued, in order to reduce the several evangelical accounts to a proper series.'

The learned Usher, speaking of this work observes in it a singular circumstance, 'quod temporis ordinem solus Matthæus

\* John Richardson, D. D. was an Englishman of Chester, and bishop of Ardagh in Ireland. He wrote a Harmony, comprehending the four passovers of our Saviour, exhibited by Usher in his Annals. He likewise wrote Observations on the Old Testament. He died 1653.

neglexisse reperiatur." Annal. sub. an. 30. Pilkington says, ' setting aside authorities, and candidly examining the point, it will appear clearly to every reader, that it is in St. Matthew's gospel, that the true chronological order of the history is neglected.'

Our author, in like manner, asserts, ' that chronological order is not precisely observed by any of the evangelists; that St. John and St. Mark observe it most, and St. Matthew neglects it most.'

Le Clerc, he thinks, has exhibited the text of the evangelists in the most useful manner; he has therefore adopted his method, though with much difference in the general and particular arrangement.

Excepting a few passages, the Greek text is printed from J. J. Wetstein's folio edition of 1751, that is, in effect, from the received edition of 1624, ex Officinâ Elzeverianâ. The various readings at the foot of the page are those, which Wetstein has subjoined to his text; that learned editor esteeming them *lectiones probatiores*.

The Harmony is divided into six parts.

The first contains the evangelical history before Jesus's public ministry, including the space of thirty years and six months.

The second includes the transactions of about six months, from his baptism, till the beginning of the ensuing passover.

The third begins with these words, John ii. 13. ' And the Jews passover was at hand, and Jesus went up to Jerusalem,' &c. comprehending the transactions of twelve months from the commencement of the *first* passover.

The fourth begins with these words: John v. 1. ' After this there was a feast of the Jews, and Jesus went up to Jerusalem,' &c. containing the transactions of twelve months from the beginning of the *second* passover.

The fifth commences with these words of Matthew xv. 1. ' Then came to Jesus scribes and pharisees, which were of Jerusalem, saying, why do thy disciples transgress the tradition of the elders,' &c. This part likewise includes the transactions of twelve months from the beginning of the *third* passover.

The sixth begins with these words, ' Now the first day of the feast of unleavened bread,' &c. Matt. xxvi. 17. Mar. xiv. 12. Luke xxii. 7. containing the transactions of three days, from the day on which the *fourth* passover was killed, to the end of the day before the resurrection.

According to this account, on the day before the fourth passover, that is, Thursday, Jesus prepares to keep the passover. In the evening, he sits down with the twelve; there is an am-

bitious contention among the disciples ; Jesus washes their feet, and foretels, that Judas would betray him. The night before the crucifixion, he foretels to the apostles the fall of Peter, and their common danger ; he institutes the eating of bread in remembrance of his body broken ; he comforts his disciples, John xiv ; he institutes the drinking of wine in remembrance of his blood shed ; resumes his discourse to his disciples, John xiv. 31. xv. xvi ; prays to his Father, John xvii ; is in an agony in Gethsemane ; is betrayed ; is brought before Annas and Caiaphas ; is thrice denied by Peter, and stands before Caiaphas, John xviii. 19—23. In the morning of the crucifixion, he is examined before the whole Jewish council, Luke xxii. 66 ; he confesses himself to be the Christ, and is pronounced guilty of death ; he is taken before Pilate, Matt. xxvii. 1. Pilate sends him to Herod, Luke xxiii. 6—12 ; Herod sends him again to Pilate ; Pilate seeks to release him ; but having scourged him, and repeated his attempts to release him, he delivers him to the clamours of the Jews ; and the soldiers insult him. About nine in the morning Pilate brought Jesus forth into the place called the Pavement. Judas repents, and destroys himself ; Jesus is led away to Mount Calvary ; is crucified, and remains on the cross. From noon to three there was darkness over all the land, Matt. xxvii. 45. Jesus expires. The vail of the temple is rent, the earth quakes, &c. Between three and six in the evening, many women were beholding afar off. In the evening Joseph of Arimathea besought Pilate that he might take away the body of Jesus. On Saturday, or the Morrow after the crucifixion (called by St. Matthew the day that followed the day of the preparation) the chief priests and pharisees came together unto Pilate to desire, that he would order the sepulchre to be secured.

The sixth part contains the transactions of forty days from the day of the resurrection to the ascension.—After six on Saturday evening, ' when the Sabbath was past, Mary Magdalene, and Mary the mother of James, and Salome, had bought sweet splices, that they might come and anoint him.' On Sunday morning, the third day after the crucifixion, the earthquake happens at the sepulchre, Matt. xxviii. 2—4 ; and many bodies of the saints which slept arose, Matt. xxvii. 52, 53 ; the women make their first visit to the sepulchre ; Peter and John visit the sepulchre ; Jesus appears first to Mary Magdalene, John xx. 2. Mar. xvi. 9 ; appears the second time, as the women went to tell the disciples, Matt. xxviii. 9. As they were going, the watch came into the city. In the afternoon Jesus having been seen by Peter (or, as St. Paul says, by Cephas) appears to the two disciples also, who went to Emaus.

**Emaus.** In the evening he appears to the apostles in the absence of Thomas.

The eighth day after the resurrection, Jesus appears to the apostles, Thomas being present. Between the eighth and the fortieth day after the resurrection, the apostles go into Galilee; Jesus appears at the sea of Tiberias, and on a mountain in Galilee. On Thursday the fortieth day after the resurrection, he ascends into heaven.

The reader will observe, that his lordship computes four passovers in our Lord's ministry. This is a point, concerning which commentators are greatly divided.

Many of the fathers thought our Lord exercised his ministry for the space of one year only. This was the opinion of Tertullian, *adv. Judæos*, cap. viii. Origen, *Philocal.* p. 4. Clemens Alexandrinus, *Strom.* 1. p. 340. Lactantius, *Inst.* iv. 10. Tatian, *Harm.* &c., and has been adopted by Mann, Priestley, and many others.

Apollinarius Laodicensis extended Christ's ministry to two years, including three passovers, as Jerom tells us, on *Dan.* ix. So likewise Epiphanius, *Hær.* 51. n. 22. and Cyril, *Isa.* 29.

Gerhard Mercator, Joseph Scaliger, Calvisius, Casaubon, Helvicus, Wells, Newton, and others, thought that there were traces of at least five passovers in the sacred history. Eusebius computed our Lord's ministry to have consisted of three years, and a half, and supposed St. John's gospel to have in it four passovers. *Hist. Eccl.* i. 10. p. 32. He is now generally followed by harmonizers of the gospels, and by ecclesiastical historians.

The first passover, according to this hypothesis, is mentioned in these words of John ii. 13. 'The Jews passover was at hand, and Jesus went to Jerusalem.'

The second is supposed to be implied in these words: 'After this there was a *feast* of the Jews,' &c. John v. 1. The word *έστη* is here understood by Whiston, Toinard, Grotius, and other writers to signify the passover, see Mar. xv. 6. Luke xxiii. 17. Our author produces many other reasons in support of this opinion.

The approach of the third passover is thus expressed, John vi. 4. 'The passover, a feast of the Jews, was nigh.' And our author considers, John vii. 1.—'Jesus walked in Galilee; for he would not walk in Jewry, because the Jews sought to kill him'—as a declaration, that Jesus did not go up to the passover, mentioned above, ch. vi. 4. 'St. John, says this learned writer, having recorded what Jesus did at the two first passovers mentioned by him, and being wholly silent about the transactions of this third passover, nay assign-

ing a reason why Jesus absented himself from it, because he could not otherwise have prolonged his ministry, by natural means, to its due period, we may rest satisfied, that Jesus dispensed with the observance of the law on this occasion.'

The third passover, when our Saviour suffered, is particularly described by all the evangelists. But many difficulties have been started relative to the time, when our Lord and the Jews kept it. Our author endeavours to remove those difficulties. The following are extracts from his observations on this point. The pascal lamb, or kid, was to be slain on the 14<sup>th</sup> of the first month, called by the Hebrews Nisan. With respect to the time of eating the passover, the words of the law are, 'they shall eat the flesh that night.' Exod. xii. 8.

During the week of our Lord's passion, the law required, that the passover should be slain on Thursday afternoon. Our Lord partook of it the night immediately succeeding, and consequently at the legal time.

Mark xiv. 12. Luke xxii. 7, equally prove, that the Jews kept the passover at the same time with Jesus,

Obj. 1. Matt. xxvi. 5. Jesus was not to be apprehended *εν τῇ ἡμέρᾳ*.

Ans. Their design was to let Jesus alone till the eight days (of the pascal feast) were ended; but on Judas's offer they changed it.

Obj. 2. John xiii. 1. What happened on the night, when Jesus celebrated the pascal feast, is said to have happened *προ τῆς ἡμέρας τοῦ πάσχα*: and therefore he anticipated the passover.

Ans. These words may mean, before Jesus began to eat the feast of the passover. Lightfoot replies, the feast of the passover always signifies, the whole seven days pascal feast. St. John therefore may mean: before the 15<sup>th</sup> of Nisan; before the feast of unleavened bread, which lasted seven days. See Lev. xxiii. 5, 6.

Obj. 3. John xiii. 29. Buy those things, which we have need of, for the feast.

Answ. This was not understood to mean the feast of the pascal lamb; but the feast of unleavened bread.

Obj. 4. The Jews avoided defilement, that they might eat the passover.

Answ. They meant the pascal sacrifices offered for seven days. Or, particularly to avoid defilement on the fifteenth of Nisan, which was a day of holy convocation.

Obj. 5. The day, on which Jesus is crucified is called *παρασκευή τοῦ πάσχα*. John xix. 14.

Answ.

Answ. Παρατην is προσαγγελτον. Luc. xxiii. 54. The preparation before that sabbath, which happened during the pascal festival.

Obj. 6. No work was to be done on the fifteenth of Nisan, and yet that is supposed to have been the day of Jesus's apprehension, trial, and crucifixion.

Answ. Bochart replies, that food might be prepared on that day, and journeys performed. Exod. xii. 16. Deut. xvi. 7. He adds: 'Eos, qui divina & humana jura omnia pedibus insolenter proculcarant, nil mirum est festi religione non retineri.' See John vii. 37, 44, 45.

These are some of the remarks, which our learned author has advanced on what Beza calls gravissima quæstio. His observations, on a variety of other points, are important and judicious.

This Harmony may be of singular use to those, who study the evangelical history with critical accuracy and attention. For the juxtaposition of parallel passages is often the best comment; and it cannot but greatly alleviate the reader's trouble, in his attempts to illustrate the phraseology and manner of the evangelists.

It shews by intuition, that St. Mark, who inserts much new matter, did not epitomize St. Matthew's Gospel.

It affords plain marks, from the additions and omissions in St. John's Gospel, that his was designed to be a supplemental history.

It illustrates, in many instances, the propriety of our Lord's conduct and words.

And lastly, it affords a strong presumptive evidence of the truth of the Gospels. For, on the most critical enquiry, they are found to be perfectly rational and consistent, in passages, wherein they seem to be the most contradictory. Thus, says Mr. West on the Resurrection, 'Truth, like honesty, often neglects appearances: but hypocrisy and imposture are always guarded.'

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*A Voyage to California, to observe the Transit of Venus. By Mons. Chappe d'Auteroche. With an historical Description of the Author's route through Mexico, and the Natural History of that Province. Also, a Voyage to Newfoundland and Sallee, to make Experiments on Mr. Le Roy's Time Keepers. By Mons. de Cassini, 8vo. 4s. in boards. Dilly.*

THE famous peninsula of California is a part, and far from an inconsiderable part of New Mexico, extending along the borders of the Pacific Ocean, from the tropic of Cancer

northwards, above a thousand miles. It was discovered by the great conqueror of Mexico, Hernando Cortes. Our famous navigator, Sir Francis Drake, landed there, and took possession of it in 1578; and his right was confirmed by the principal king of the country. This title however the government of Great Britain has not hitherto attempted to vindicate, on account perhaps of the distance of California, as there is no immediate access to it by sea, but by a long and dangerous voyage round Cape Horn. It is however well situated for trade, and on its coast has a pearl fishery of great value. The property of the country is claimed by the Spaniards, though their settlements in it are comparatively weak. The inhabitants are chiefly Indians, whom the Spanish missionaries have, in many places, brought over to *Christianity*, if a certain gross and wretched species of popery can deserve that venerable appellation.

M. Chappe set out from Paris, Sept. 19, 1768, attended by a servant and three other persons, viz. M. Pauly the king's engineer and geographer, Mr. Noel a young painter, and M. Dubois a watchmaker. These gentlemen arrived at Cadiz, Oct. 17, where they were joined by Mess. Doz and Medina, two naval officers, and astronomers to his catholic majesty. They sailed from Cadiz, Dec. 21, entered the harbour of La Vera Cruz, March 8, 1769, after a passage of eleven weeks. \* This city is situated by the sea side, in the southern part of Mexico. It is surrounded on the north with barren sands, and on the west with bogs, which have been drained. This makes the situation both disagreeable and unwholesome. The port is much frequented, especially once in two years, when the Spanish fleet comes hither to unload the European goods, which are afterwards to be sold, and distributed all over Mexico; and to bring home that silver, and those immense treasures, the thirst of which cost the lives of so many thousands, and made the wretched subjects of Montezuma the sad victims of the insatiable greediness of the Europeans.

\* La Vera Crux contains no grand edifice. The governor's house has nothing that distinguishes it from the rest, which are all built after the Spanish manner. There is one church and three monasteries. The streets are tolerably strait, and of a common breadth. The town is encompassed with walls, and has four gates, each flanked with two towers. There are two bastions at the ends of the wall next the water side. These fortifications are in a *bad* condition; the best defence is the fortress belonging to the castle of St. Juan de Ulloa. It is built on a rock, which rises in the middle of the harbour, facing the town at some distance.

M. Chappe

M. Chappe and his companions having provided themselves with mules, to carry their instruments, beds, tents, provisions, and other articles, necessary for a journey of 300 leagues, through those dreary deserts they were to pass in their way to San-Blas, where they intended to embark, in order to cross the Vermilion Sea, or the Gulph of California, they left Vera Cruz on the 18th of March, and arrived at Mexico on the 26th.

‘ Mexico, the capital of the province which bears that name, is situated on the banks of a lake, and built upon a fen, crossed by a multitude of canals, consequently the houses are all built upon piles. The ground gives way in many places, and many buildings are observed to have sunk upwards of six feet, without any visible alteration in the body of the building: one of these is the cathedral, which I shall speak of hereafter.

‘ The streets of Mexico are very wide, perfectly *strait*, and almost all intersect each other at right angles. The houses are tolerably built, but not much ornamented either within or without; their *make* is the same as in Spain.

‘ There is no very remarkable edifice at Mexico. The viceroy’s palace is in a spacious and pretty regular square, with a fountain in the middle. The only merit of this palace is, that it is built *very solid*. No decorations are to be found there. Within its circumference are three handsome courtyards, with each a fountain in the middle. The mint stands behind this palace, and is a noble building. Upwards of a hundred workmen are constantly employed there in coining piastras for the king of Spain, out of the enormous masses of silver brought thither by the owners of the mines, who exchange them for coin. It is said, about fourteen millions of piastras are struck yearly in this mint.

‘ The most sumptuous buildings are the churches, chapels, and convents. There are a great many in this city, which are very richly ornamented, and among others the cathedral. The rail round the high altar is solid silver; and what is still more costly, there is a silver lamp, so capacious that three men get in to clean it: this lamp is enriched with figures of lions’ heads, and other ornaments of pure gold. The inside pillars are hung with rich crimson velvet, enriched with a broad gold fringe. This profusion of riches in the churches at Mexico is not very surprising to *whoever* has seen the cathedral of Cadiz, and the immense treasures contained in it. Gold and precious stones are there lavished upon the sacred vessels and ornaments; and the images of the holy Virgin and other

other saints are either solid silver, or clad in the richest garments.

‘ The outside of the cathedral of Mexico is unfinished, and likely to continue so; they are afraid of increasing the weight of the building, which already begins to sink, as before noticed. I shall say nothing of the other churches; I believe there are as many as there are saints in the calendar.

‘ The city of Mexico contains three squares; the first is the Maior or great square fronting the palace, the cathedral, and the market-place, which is a double square surrounded with buildings: this square is in the center of the city. The second, adjoining to this, is the square called del Volador, where the bull-feasts are held. The third, is that of Santo Domingo. These squares are tolerably regular, and each has a fountain in the middle. To the north of the town, near the suburbs, is the public walk, or Alameda. A rivulet runs all round it, and forms a pretty large square, with a basin and *jet d'eau* in the middle. Eight walks, with each two rows of trees, terminate at this basin like a star; but as the soil of Mexico is unfit for trees, they are not in a very thriving condition. This is the only walk in or near to Mexico; all the country about it is swampy ground, and full of canals. A few paces off, and facing the Alameda, is the Quemadero; this is the place where they burn the Jews, and other unhappy victims of the awful tribunal of Inquisition. This Quemadero is an enclosure between four walls, and filled with ovens, into which are thrown, over the walls, the poor wretches who are condemned to be burnt alive; condemned, by judges professing a religion whose first precept is charity.’

Our astronomer crossed the gulph with some difficulty, and landed at the mission of San Joseph, in California, on the 19th of May. The weather was favourable. He fixed his instruments, and on the 3d of June had an opportunity of making a complete observation on the transit of Venus.

Mr. Chappe's narrative ends at this period; and the few remaining pages contain a melancholy account of his death, on the first of August; and likewise the death of Mr. Dubois, Mr. Medina, and three of their attendants, occasioned by an epidemical distemper, which raged at San Joseph.

To this narrative is annexed the extract of a letter from Mexico, addressed to the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris, by don Anthony de Alzate, relative to the natural history of that province. This is a superficial description, of the natural curiosities of Mexico.

The

The latter part of this volume contains the account of a voyage to Newfoundland and Sallee, by M<sup>me</sup> de Cassini. The most important article in this voyage is an account of the method of salting and drying cod; to which we must refer the reader, who wishes to know the process.

This publication contains a plan of the city of Mexico; but no maps, charts, or astronomical observations. It is but indifferently translated.

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*Letters from Henrietta to Morvina. Interspersed with Anecdotes, historical and amusing, of the different Courts and Countries through which she passed. Founded on Facts. 2 vols. 12mo. 5s. sewed. Bew.*

**A** Novel which is founded on facts, though it may not always prove so entertaining, in respect of incidents, is free, however, from those blemishes which arise from the extravagance of ungoverned invention. In that now before us we are presented with the correspondence of an accomplished and amiable young lady, who describes to her sister several characters, which she occasionally accompanies with various particulars concerning them. As a specimen of those moral portraits, no less than of the justness of the young lady's sentiments, we shall lay before our readers the following Letter.

‘ This lady P—— (my dear Morvina) will force herself into one’s confidence; nay, into one’s heart. She is extremely agreeable. I never knew her half so much so, as she was yesterday. She stayed with me till past three in the morning: few women have read so much, or books so well chosen, or so happily digested their reading. She has clearly selected the best ideas of the best authors, so as to make the sense her own. Is it a wonder then her judgment should seldom err? For by comparing the past with the present, we may give a shrewd guess at the future, without the gift of foreknowledge. In short, much improvement is to be gained, as well as pleasure, by conversing with her ladyship. Nor does she deal out her information with an air of superiority, mystery, &c. I know no person better, if so well, qualified to form the mind of a young woman; to point out the surest paths to virtue, and those flowery ways which insensibly lead us too near the reverse, by inducing us to fix our hearts on transitory delights, nor raise our views beyond this globe terrestrial; delights which may intoxicate, but never can satisfy a rational mind, even in its present state, and must render it totally unfit for another. She feels the unpleasantness of my situation; would do any thing to extricate me from it. Sometimes her ladyship piques me on my good understanding, (as the

partially

partly calls it,) and on that religion which I hope I do in some degree practice. on my duty to the only parent heaven has left me; the love and delicacy I owe you all; to make an effort, and get the better of a passion, which allowing the object ever so sincere, in gratefully and tenderly returning it, must end unhappy, and involve you all in those distresses, the narrowness of his fortune, and expensive turn of mind, must subject me to. Indeed, my dear sister, the strength, the truth of this reasoning makes me tremble, on a retrospect of the dreadful precipice I have so narrowly escaped, and a conduct I feel *was* criminal. I had certainly no right to indulge a passion one single moment, that I knew too well my mother would be utterly averse to. Being what the world calls our own mistress, is a bad reason for relaxing in our duty to those who gave us being. A parent less indulgent than ours, merits more regard, more duty and attention than we can offer. Had these reflections struck me with equal force somewhat earlier, it would have saved me many an anxious hour. Diseases of the mind, as those of the body, cannot be too speedily attended to. Keep this ever in your mind, my dear sister, and let not your gentle easy nature be a dupe to that artifice men in general practise towards us all; often from no other motive but to indulge their vanity, or raise their merit with some worthless object, whom fashion induces them to follow, and the glory of supplanting a rival makes them sacrifice every thing to a wretch, who in their heart they despise. Infer not from this, I look upon the whole sex as dangerous betrayers. Far from it. I hold the friendship of a sensible well-bred man of honour, a very valuable acquisition. But then his honour must not consist in running a man through the body, or shooting him through the head. It must arise from a principle in the heart, nursed up and cherished by religion and reason. A mere moral man is my aversion; though in truth he ought to be an object of my compassion; for what is he more than a puppet, strutting his hour away on this stage of misery and folly; vainly assuming to himself the attributes of his Maker; peremptorily deciding on the present, regardless of (if not denying) the future; at the same time his coward heart gives the lie to his life, nay, to his tongue, which in every danger, under every calamity, invokes the aid of that all-wise, all powerful Being, he has dared, in his hours of mirth and jollity, to blaspheme. Too many of these wretches are termed good sort of men; men of honour. But should we wonder, can we be surprised, to prove them otherwise, who make pleasure or profit the sole criterion of their actions, whose views are contracted within the narrow compass of the present space? I am only amazed such a man thinks it necessary to wear the mask so far, as to stop at any ill his wild imagination suggests, where his rank and fortune shamefully bid defiance to the laws. But I must end my reflections, or be too late for the post. God bless you; believe me truly yours, &c.'

Several

Several of the Letters are dated from places on the Continent; and among them we find one, containing a curious anecdote of the Russian emperor Peter the Great, which, upon the assertion of its authenticity, we shall admit into our Review.

‘ Not to wear you out with convent anecdotes, I send you one of a court; no less a court than that of Russia, and of no less a man than the emperor, Peter the First, so deservedly styled the Great. You shall have it sans preface, which almost always tries the patience, and fatigues the mind so, as to leave little relish for the story. That it is a fact, is all that I will now say; my comments on, and how I came by it, shall follow. Know then, this prince, so superior to every other weakness, so unconquerable in arms, was by no means proof against the tender passions, and received a wound from the bright eyes of the daughter of an officer in his army, above the power of art to heal, or the force of his resolution to sustain with that dignity, that fortitude, which had hitherto so peculiarly marked the character of this extraordinary man, throughout every scene of action. She was young, perfectly beautiful, and along with it all, carried the appearance of virtue, which the emperor has frequently declared served more effectually to complete her conquest, than all the other agreements she possessed; so unaccountably are we made, said he, I could not help adoring that virtue, at the same instant I wished, and tried, by every warrantable means to undermine it. But long, alas! were all his efforts vain. Not Prior’s Egyptian slave received her eastern monarch with more hauteur, or seemed more resolutely bent to mortify *his* pride, and to make him feel how feeble, how vague, all human greatness, when we presume on securing our happiness by it, even in this gew-gaw world, and suffer it to lead us beyond reason’s limits. He had indeed no rival (declared at least) to baffle his hopes. Time and perseverance, he flattered himself might in love, as in war (he had frequently experienced), surmount all difficulties, and in the end give him possession of that heart, which only had power to set *his* at ease. He first attacked her vanity, believing with the generality of mankind, that the ruling passion in a female mind; but although he offered every sacrifice to *her* within the utmost extent of his power (to marry her was not in his power) he had the mortification, after some months close siege, to find himself just where he began. He next attacked her avarice, to the full as unsuccessfully. In short, he tried her on all sides; left no passion unflattered the human mind is heir to. At length, when *he*, from frequent repulses, very rarely the lot of princes, was reduced to despair, and upon the very verge of leaving her, she yielded; at the same time assuring him, the combats she had so long sustained between virtue, modesty, and her passion for *him* (which had all along equalled *that* his majesty had so honourably, nay amply, manifested towards her) had

had produced infinitely sorer conflicts in her mind than even Peter the Great ever had to encounter. But if her sufferings should happily enhance the value of an honest, though humble heart, in the eyes of her adored monarch, she must ever hereafter reflect on them with the highest gratification; that instead of idly attempting to express sentiments so far above the reach of words, she begged leave to refer his majesty to her future conduct, for proofs of the gratitude and tenderness of an heart whose greatest glory, and warmest wish, was to render itself worthy its possessor. All this the emperor implicitly believed, and held himself the happiest of mortals; that a life of abject slavery would but ill pay the value of a jewel so inestimable. Thus apparently they loved, and lived together in perfect union for some years, till time and chance, the great discloser of human events, shewed the emperor, beyond all possibility of doubt, the dupe her artifice had made of him, or more probably the rectitude and nobleness of his own mind; for convinced am I, a good heart will often betray the best head in the world into weaknesses that would be barely pardonable in a driveller. The emperor was ever ornamenting and improving Petersburgh; had built a fortress in the sea, which he designed for prisoners of state. No sooner was it finished than he gave a superb entertainment *there* to all the foreign ministers then resident at his court, and to many of his own nobility. Both at and after dinner the glass was pushed about briskly, consequently the whole company in spirits. In coming out to take boat, the Polish minister, by some untoward, and for him fatal, accident, fell over the bridge and was drowned, notwithstanding every effort used to save him. The emperor expressed infinite concern at the accident, and the inefficacy of all the remedies which had been instantly administered; then turning to the rest of the company, he said, all papers, he thought, should be deemed sacred, and desired all the ministers *there* would be present at the taking the papers out of this unhappy man's pockets, and set their seals upon them, along with his own. In searching for papers, something fell on the floor; the emperor himself stooped and took it up; to his astonishment and confusion it proved to be a picture of the lady who had so long and so unworthily engrossed his heart, nay, his very soul, who, if he ever suffered a pang about, it proceeded from the reflection of having seduced such inflexible, such untainted virtue and honour. Is it wonderful then, his majesty should be curious to pry further? surely no. On observing several letters, these, said he, contain no state affairs, and opened them, read one or two, and took the remainder of that parcel, ordering the rest of the papers to be carefully sealed up, left the company, went into his barge, and the moment he landed set off post for Moscow, where he left the mistress of his heart. He arrived there in an incredible short space of time, went directly to the house of a lady who was a friend to them both, and ordered her to send for his mistress to meet him there instantly. She obeyed, though

though much surprised to see the emperor so unexpectedly, and with every mark of horror, rage, and despair visibly painted in his countenance. The moment the lady arrived, with much warmth he asked her how she came to write to the Polish minister: she at first denied ever having written to him; on which his majesty produced the packet of letters taken out of that minister's pocket, all of her writing, and in the common style of fondness, informing her likewise how they fell into his hands, and of the unfortunate end of his rival. Not having heard of his death till that moment, forgetting, or at least regardless of all danger, she delivered herself up to grief, to passion; burst into tears and woe-ful lamentations for the loss of all her heart held dear; while the emperor, in a storm of rage, reproached her, as he had but too just cause, with falsehood, ingratitude, and every vice that degrades and sinks humanity; when, to the amazement of all present, he on a sudden became calm as possible, and turning towards her, said, Madam, I too well, too poignantly feel, how hard it is for those who conquer others, to conquer themselves; 'tis *there* true glory lies, above all in love: sensible as I am of the unfair, injurious treatment, offered by you, in return for an excess of fondness, an unlimited confidence, an esteem you never merited from me, I cannot hate you; but to continue to live with you, must render me contemptible in the eyes of the whole world, and what is still more painful to endure, in my own eyes. You shall never want the comforts wealth can give, if any there are for one so shamefully lost, abandoned to every sense of virtue; but determined am I never to see you more. He kept his word with her; and as violent passions which have neither honour nor honesty for their basis soon subside, she consented to marry an officer in the Russian service, to whom the emperor was always exceedingly good, but continued him in some profitable employment far distant from the court. This great man, you see, though by no means proof against love, was proof against the follies of it. The beauties of his mistress had indeed power to make him so far forget his rank, the dignity of his situation, as to kneel, implore, and supplicate his subject; but nothing could make him court vice, though couched beneath the form of an angel, or cherish a serpent in his bosom.'

These Letters in general discover the sentiments of a virtuous and well educated mind, that retains a taste unvitiated either by the fashionable gaieties of life, or an increased acquaintance with the world; and in point of composition, they are superior to common novels.

*Remarks upon an Essay, intituled, The History of the Colonization of the Free States of Antiquity, applied to the present Contest between Great Britain and her American Colonies. By John Symonds, LL.D. 4to. 2s. 6d. Payne.*

**I**N our Review for June 1777, we gave an account of the History which forms the subject of the Remarks at present before us. Considered as a literary discussion only, an inquiry into the nature of ancient colonization might be treated with great impartiality; but its apparent reference to the dispute subsisting between Great Britain and America, can hardly fail of subjecting its authors to the suspicion of being actuated by interested motives. A charge of this kind is intimated by Dr. Symonds against the author on whom he comments; nor has the doctor, in his turn, escaped an imputation of the same nature. But however the sentiments of the different authors may be warped by party, no conclusions drawn from the ancient mode of colonization can be justly, and invariably applied to the practice of modern times; and the controversy ought still to be considered as a speculative, historical inquiry.

A part of the Introduction will shew our readers the spirit with which Dr. Symonds sets forth; but in respect of the many points in controversy, we must refer them to the Remarks.

‘ It is related of Lysimachus, who had been a captain in Alexander’s army, and an eye-witness of all that passed in the course of his victories, that, after he had heard some exaggerated memoirs of that prince’s exploits recited, he calmly observed, and where was I, whilst these feats were atchieved? To a similar censure do those writers expose themselves, who, be their end what it will, pervert the records of antiquity. Were this learned artifice confined to questions of curiosity, or verbal criticism, it would do little or no disservice to the world; and a man, who attempted to refute it, might possibly be blamed for an idle and frivolous zeal; but when doctrines of importance are established upon so false a foundation, it becomes a matter of great and general concern: and it cannot be thought improper for any one, who has applied himself to the study of ancient literature, to bear his testimony against such reasonings, whenever they are offered to the public.

‘ This must be my apology (if the reader shall think that I stand in need of any) for examining the leading principles of The History of the Colonization of the Free States of Antiquity, &c. The author appears to be a man of sense, and know-

knowledge; and competently versed in the best writers of Greece, and Rome: but, whether we may ascribe it to too much haste in reading, or whether we are to look for any other cause, it is certain, that he either has not carefully inquired into facts, or has not stated them fairly and honestly. His readers must have observed, that, though he has fallen into several errors, he has not once mistaken in favour of the ancient colonists: a circumstance, which they will be led to impute to something more than accident; for though it cannot be denied, that many actions of those colonists are deserving of censure, yet it is highly disingenuous to put always upon them the worst constructions.

The main drift of our author, as it appears from his introduction, is "to investigate the nature of the connexion which subsisted between the Carthaginians, Greeks, and Romans, and their colonies; and particularly to ascertain the practice of antiquity with regard to the much controverted article of taxation," p. 3. He says farther, "that the chief reason which induced him to undertake this task, was because he wished to prepare the nation for the parliamentary settlement on the submission of the colonies, both by suggesting to the legislature itself all the information which can be derived from the purest precedents of ancient history, and by attempting to reconcile the minds of the people in general to that settlement, when they shall find it, perhaps, supported by the policy of those ages, which enjoyed the most perfect civil liberty," p. 4. I apprehend, that our author's zeal has betrayed him into an inconvenience, which he did not foresee. Great indulgence is due to a writer, who submits his opinions with modesty to the public: but when any one professes to *instruct the legislature*, he gives up his claim to such an indulgence: and the errors, which in others might easily be pardoned, would in him be deemed inexcusable.

Our author's argument for taxation, which is the very hinge upon which his whole essay turns, is nothing more than this: the free states of antiquity taxed their colonies: therefore Great Britain hath a right to tax her's. An extraordinary inference indeed! which brings to my mind an argument employed by Swift in his digression concerning madness: "There is, says he, in mankind a certain \* \* \* \* \* hic multa desiderantur—and this I take to be a clear solution of the matter." On a point of so great consequence as the right of taxation, it would have become our author to have been more cautious, or more candid. He ought either not to have used such an argument; or not to have left his readers to find out the exceptions, to which it was liable. One may venture to say,

that, by his mode of reasoning, it would not be difficult to justify the most flagrant abuses of power, that are to be found under any government in Europe.

In the course of these Remarks we meet with many judicious observations; but the whole, it must be acknowledged, favours more of a polemical than a critical inquiry, and seems to be intended as a counter-poise to the influence of the other Essay; for which it is adapted both by argument and historical learning.

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*Mathematical Principles of Natural Philosophy. By Sir Isaac Newton, Knight. Translated into English, and illustrated with a Commentary, by Robert Thorp, M. A. Volume the First. 4to. 1l. 1s. in boards. Cadell.*

THE importance of the great work of the immortal sir Isaac Newton has been long and universally acknowledged and experienced. It has gone through three editions in this country, in the life-time of the illustrious author, with successive improvements and additions. It has also been printed in different parts of Europe, where the doctrines contained in it have at length been received and established, in opposition to the strong prejudices which for many years prevented this general effect. In one edition it was extended to four quarto volumes by means of the large commentaries of the learned and laborious fathers Le Seur and Jacquier. We have had published an English translation of it in two neat octavo volumes, accompanied with Mr. Machin's theory of the moon, deduced from the principles of gravity laid down in that work. Besides all these we are in daily expectation of the so long promised publication of all sir Isaac Newton's works, with a commentary, by Dr. Horsley, the present learned secretary of the Royal Society. Notwithstanding these, Mr. Thorp, it seems, judged one more translation and a commentary not unnecessary. Of his performance the present is the first volume, a second being promised to complete the work.—Mr. Thorp gives an account of it in an advertisement prefixed to this volume.

‘ The following Commentary is in a particular manner adapted to the use of those, who, without dedicating their time to the study of the deeper parts of mathematics, are desirous of being acquainted wsth the principles of sir Isaac Newton's philosophy, and those clear and convincing reasonings, by which they are established in his own writings. The evidence and accuracy of reasoning, the singular perspicuity both of thought and expression, by which these writings, even in their most abstruse parts, are

are so eminently distinguished, must, to every reader who is furnished with a previous knowledge of the mathematical sciences, render the author himself much clearer than any Commentary that can be written to explain him. But to those who, by their employments, or pursuits of other parts of useful learning, are unable to apply that attention and time, which are necessary to acquire a complete knowledge of the different branches of mathematics, the uses and advantages of a commentary are apparent; to supply those demonstrations, which the author has omitted, on the supposition that they are previously known; to point out the extent and limits of problems; and to shew their practical use and application to the system of the world.

\* The editor requires of his readers a clear and accurate knowledge of the geometry of Euclid, of the elementary parts of algebra, and a few of the primary properties of the conic sections. From these principles the reasoning is every where taken up, and carried on through every intermediate step omitted by the author. Whatever immediately relates to the subject, by which the argument may be illustrated, except the elementary principles already mentioned, is supplied in the Commentary, as the occasion may require. A variety of corollaries, deductions, and philosophical scholiums are there likewise added; such as cannot fail to elucidate the use and tendency of the most abstract propositions: and, where it is possible, their application to the phenomena of nature.

\* The synthetic form of demonstration being best suited to those readers for whose use this work is intended, the geometrical style of the author is adopted also in the Commentary. The doctrine of prime and ultimate ratios (the foundation of his method) is established, so as to remove the various objections which have been raised against it, since it was first published. To the relations of finite quantities alone the reasoning on this subject is confined; and the form of demonstration is shewn to be agreeable to that which was made use of, and always admitted as strictly conclusive, by the most accurate of the ancient geometers. But the synthetic method being first applied, there are moreover added a few analytical demonstrations of some of the principal propositions by the method of fluxions; which being the invention of the author himself, and established on the strictest and most unexceptionable reasoning, concise in its process, general and comprehensive in its conclusions, cannot fail to give the greatest satisfaction to all mathematical readers. But the present publication not being particularly intended for such, the demonstrations of this kind are few, and may be omitted by other readers.

\* The translation is in general as literal as possible; the elegance and accuracy of the original, and the nature of the subject, requiring nothing further. In a few instances indeed the editor has departed from this rule; particularly in the meaning of certain terms, such as, *quantitates quam minimæ, evanescentes, ultime,*

time, infinite magnæ, and the like; which, though not rendered according to the original import of the words, are yet explained in that sense, and with those limitations, under which the author cautions his readers to understand them. This is the more necessary, as the terms infinite, infinitesimal, least possible, and the like, have been grossly misapplied and abused: and it would contribute much to the accuracy required in mathematical knowledge, if they were entirely rejected from all reasonings on such subjects.

\* The substance of many of the notes is taken from MacLaurin, Saunderson, Keill, Morgan's notes on Rohault, *Excerpta quædam e Newtoni Principiis Philosophiæ Naturalis, cum notis variorum*, and several other writings, in which particular parts of the Principia are elucidated.

From this short state, which seems to be just, the nature of this work may be easily known; we may however observe, that Mr. Thorp has prefixed to this volume a large introduction of his own, containing general and pertinent reflections on some of the principal subjects treated of in the Principia, together with Dr. Halley's Latin poem, and translations of sir Isaac Newton's three prefaces to the three different editions of it, as also that of the very ingenious and learned Mr. Cotes, the editor of the second edition, published in the year 1713.

This work is well printed, the text in a large type, and the comment on a smaller one at the bottoms of the same pages.— We wish that the usual mode of printing the schemes with wooden cuts, on the pages with the letter-press, had been retained, instead of the separate sheets of copper-plates here introduced, as a distinction would thus have been preserved between the original figures belonging to the text and those added by the translator to illustrate his commentary, which are mixed in the same folding sheets.

The nature of sir Isaac Newton's Principia is too well known to render a description of its contents necessary. And as neither it nor the commentary are proper subjects to make extracts from, we shall select a specimen from the popular introduction of the ingenious editor.

\* No part of astronomy was more imperfect, before sir Isaac Newton's time, than the theory of the comets. The appearance of a few of the most remarkable had indeed been recorded in history. But the prevailing opinion was, that they were only meteors, floating in the atmosphere of the earth. He therefore begins by shewing, that they are above the moon, and in the planetary regions. He proceeds to trace out their orbits: and finds, that they revolve round the sun, like planets, in very eccentric

centrical ellipses, approaching nearly to the form of parabolas : and he shews, how such trajectories may be determined from three observations. From the examples to which he has applied his theory it appears, that the motions of comets, as deduced from the computations of their orbits, agree as nearly with their real motions, derived from observation, as the theory of the planets agrees with their motions. But few of the comets have yet been observed with care and accuracy ; though their number is probably very great. The improvement therefore of this important part of astronomical science must be left to the labours of future ages ; when, by long and accurate observations on such as may appear at nearly equal intervals, their periods and orbits may be determined ; and their theory, by the application of the principles here laid down, may at last be brought to the same perfection as that of the planets. For though they cannot be expected to return in the same orbits, and at equal intervals, accurately, on account of the disturbances arising from their mutual gravitations, and various other resistances ; yet it must be observed, that their motions are so contrived, as to diminish these inequalities as much as possible. For that no inconvenience may arise from their mutual gravitations, the planes of their orbits are inclined to each other, and to the plane of the ecliptic in large angles ; so that they can never approach very near either to each other, or to the planets, except they happen to be at the same time in the intersections of those planes. And to prevent the errors in the higher parts of their orbits, where the effects of their disturbing forces on each other are greatest, both because their motions are slowest, and because the action of the sun is least, they are made to move in various directions, many of them contrary to the order of the signs, and to the course of the planets ; so that ascending towards different parts of the heavens, they recede to great distances from each other. That the comets are solid compact bodies sir Isaac Newton concludes from their near approach to the sun, where vapours and all rarer substances would soon be dissipated and consumed by the heat. The remarkable comet of the year 1680 approached so near the body of the sun in its perihelion, that dry earth, placed at the same distance, might acquire a heat 2000 times greater than that of red hot iron. And though the communication of heat, especially to large bodies, is gradual ; and the comet receded with an immense velocity from the sun ; yet as it is computed, that the heat at that distance was about 28000 times greater than that of the summer sun in England, it must have conceived, and be so constituted as to bear, a very great degree of heat, such as would dissipate the most solid bodies in this earth. We must also suppose, that the densities of all the comets are adapted to the several degrees of heat, to which they are respectively exposed in their different orbits.

From all the phenomena relating to these bodies, as well as the other parts of the system, sir Isaac Newton concludes, that their motions could not have their origin from mechanical causes. And that the revolutions of the comets, passing freely through the orbits of the planets, in all directions, in very eccentric ellipses, and in very different planes; and the motions of the planets, performed in the same direction, in ellipses approaching nearly to circles, and in planes inclined to each other in very small angles, must be the effects of the most wise and excellent contrivance for the best ends. Six primary planets, projected at different distances, revolve round the sun in periods, which bear a regular and invariable proportion to their distances. One satellite revolves round the earth: but Jupiter and Saturn, the two planets most remote from the light of the sun, are illuminated, the former by four, the latter by five satellites, revolving in the same direction, and nearly in the same plane; and, the periods and distances of such as tend to the same centre being compared together, the same harmony takes place between them, as was observed in the case of the planets. One uniform principle of gravity is diffused over all the bodies in the system; which extending itself to their centres, and to every particle which they contain, is the power by which they are united together, and preserved entire; and varying according to the inverse proportion of the squares of their distances, regulates their revolutions, and retains them in their proper orbits. No other law of gravity could have been established so proper, either for uniting the parts of the several globes, or for preserving their regular courses. If the gravities of particles are supposed to vary inversely as the cubes of their distances, the attractions of spheres, composed of such particles, will be indefinitely greater in contact than at the least finite distance (441 and 442.) If the gravities of the planets had been made to vary inversely as the cubes of their distances from the sun, or in any greater proportion, the consequence would have been, that whenever their motions became oblique to the directions of their forces, they would from that time either ascend for ever from the sun, or descend continually till they fell upon his body (218.) But the alternate approach and recess of the planets in every revolution; and the motions of the comets, descending very near to the surface of the sun, and then ascending to immense distances in very eccentric orbits, evidently follow from the established law of gravity (213. and 218.).

From every thing that can be discovered with any certainty relating to the constitutions and densities of the planets it appears, that they are nicely adapted to their different situations, and to the different degrees of heat and cold, which they must bear at their respective distances from the sun. The proportions of the quantities of matter and densities of three of the planets are pretty accurately determined: and the mean density of the earth

earth appears to be almost six times greater than that of Saturn, and above four times greater than that of Jupiter. And it is probable that the densities of all the planets increase, the less their distance is from the sun. If a body of the same density as the earth was placed in the orbit of Venus or Mercury, the fluid parts would soon be dissipated with the heat: if it was removed to the distance of Jupiter or Saturn, they would be congealed with the cold: but the greater density of the inferior planets, and rarity of the superior, are exactly suited to the several distances assigned them in the system. From some observations upon the figure of Jupiter, the diameter at the equator of that planet is found to exceed its axis, so much more than it ought to do, upon the supposition of an uniform density, that there is great reason to suppose the density at the centre much greater than at the surface: and that the proportion of the density, at the surface of that planet, to the density of the earth, approaches much nearer to the proportions of the densities of the solar rays, at their respective distances, than the proportions of their mean densities above mentioned. And it does not seem improbable, that the densities at the surfaces of all the planets are nearly proportional to the heat of the sun at their respective distances.

The light of the fixed stars being of the same nature with the light of the sun; and their magnitudes being at least as great; sir Isaac Newton conjectures, from the conformity observable in all the appearances of nature, that they are also suns enlightening other systems of planets. From the smallness of the angles, under which they appear through telescopes, magnifying to a very great degree; from the immense distances, to which some of the comets recede from the sun, without coming within the attraction of the nearest fixed star; from their apparent aberrations, compared with the immense velocity of light; and from the smallness of their annual parallax; it appears, that their distances are so great, that the whole orbit which the earth describes round the sun, if viewed from such distances, would subtend an angle hardly observable; the sun would appear as a point; and the reflected light of the planets would become invisible. A body then of the same nature and magnitude as the sun, attended with a system of planets, and removed to the distance of a fixed star, would appear to us as a fixed star is really seen, diminished to a small lucid point, and divested of those planets. But it is not agreeable to that excellent contrivance and disposition of things, evidently adapted with the most perfect wisdom to the best ends, to suppose that bodies of such magnitudes should be removed to immense distances from the solar system, and from each other, without design, and without any objects near enough to receive their beneficial influences. Nor can it be imagined, that bodies, suited in their nature to support and enlighten as many systems of planets, should be intended only for the use of this small globe, where the far greater

number of them is invisible to the naked eye. By the help of glasses three thousand fixed stars have been observed and their places determined. And as every improvement of the telescope has constantly been followed by the discovery of multitudes, unseen, before ; we have reason to conclude, that as their distances are beyond our conception, so their number is unlimited.

‘ Whether we have any relation to the more distant bodies of the universe, either of the solar system, or any other, is entirely unknown. And as, for wise reasons, the Author of Nature has rendered it impossible for us to have access to any of them, this part of our knowledge, in our present state, must be imperfect. But as we immediately perceive, from the nearest and most obvious effects, the influences of that Supreme Being, who by stated and established laws regulates and sustains the whole system of nature ; though the more immediate causes, the instruments of his action, are partially and obscurely known to us ; so we discover enough in the distant parts of the universe to enlarge our conceptions of the Almighty Power, which fashions and supports so many immense bodies ; which gave motion to the greatest and the least ; which produced all degrees of velocity, some too swift, some too slow for our perceptions ; and which regulates by certain laws, and with equal facility, the motions of the largest planets, and of the smallest portions of matter. And from our partial knowledge of the scheme of nature, and the intimations which we perceive of greater and more surprising operations beyond the reach of our faculties, we may be led to consider our present state as incomplete without relation to a future existence : and to reflect on the more extensive and perfect views which will be disclosed to us of the designs of Providence, if endowed with enlarged faculties, we shall then be enabled to behold the various effects of nature, as they are derived from the first cause, and to comprehend more fully the whole scheme of the divine operations, extended as it really is, beyond all imaginable limits of space, or periods of time.’

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*Illustrium Virorum Elogia Sepulchralia. Edidit Edvardus Popham.*

*Col. Oriel Oxon. nuper Socio. 8vo. 5s. Dodsley.*

**T**HIS is a select collection of monumental inscriptions, exhibiting the names, employments, and personal qualities of some of the most eminent poets, historians, philosophers, divines, lawyers, warriors, and princes, which England, France, Italy, and other nations of Europe, have produced, in the course of about four preceding centuries. They are ranged in alphabetical order, for the convenience of turning to any one of them immediately, as occasion may require ; but the chronological order, with an index, would have been prefer-

preferable in many respects. It would have shewn the reader at one view, which of these eminent men have been contemporaries, and how they have risen up and flourished in a regular succession; it would have pointed out the general progress of the sciences, which is intimately connected with the lives of great men; and would have exemplified the prevailing taste of the times, with regard to sepulchral compositions.

Though epitaphs are frequently the productions of vanity, partiality, and adulation, yet many of them contain some useful information. They serve to elucidate facts, and to fix dates; they are a proper tribute of respect to virtuous and heroic actions; they are a sort of annals, or a compendious history of mankind, which is not kept in closets, but exposed to the view of the people in public places, and may be consulted at any time. And as they are engraved on marble or brass, they acquire a singular importance, and are supposed to confer immortality on great and good men.

The Latin language is generally used on these occasions, for the following reasons: 1. The elogies of illustrious men are more particularly addressed to those who have had a liberal education, and can form a proper judgment of their character and abilities. 2. The words of this language are sonorous, and easily thrown into an harmonious arrangement. 3. The expressions are generally concise and nervous, and frequently derive a beauty from some classical allusion. Lastly, this language is understood by the learned of all nations; and will certainly continue, without variation, to the end of time; which may not be the case with any of our modern languages.

— The common language of the country, is, however, not improperly made use of in the epitaphs of private persons, whose names are not distinguished in the general republic of letters.

It has been observed, that these inscriptions are often inadequate to the dignity of the subject, and more calculated to expose the ignorance, or the false taste of the writer, than celebrate the virtues of those philosophers, patriots, or heroes, for whom they are composed. To remedy this inconvenience, or more properly speaking, to prevent this national disgrace in France, the celebrated Mr. Colbert formed the plan of an academy for the study of antiquities, and the express purpose of superintending public monuments and inscriptions. This society received its academical form in 1701, and has been much distinguished by the learning of its members, and the value of the works they have published.

The great beauty of monumental inscriptions chiefly consists in an expressive brevity, and an unaffected simplicity. A luxuriancy

uriancy of words, or a profusion of metaphorical images, is improper.

The following passage in Dr. Busby's epitaph is, in this respect, exceptionable. If you wish, says the author to form a proper notion of his genius and abilities,

‘ Academiæ utriusque, & fori *lumina*,

Aulæ, senatûs, atque ecclesiæ

Principes viros contemplare.

Cumque satam ab illo ingeniorum *meffem*

Tam variam, tamque uberem lustraveris,

Quantus is esset, qui severit, cogita.

Is certè erat,

Qui insitam cuique à naturâ iadolem

Et acutè perspexit,

Et exercuit commodè,

Et feliciter promovit.

Dumque pueri instituebantur

Sensim succrescerent viri.’

&c.

Those great men, who were educated by Dr. Busby are first represented as lights or luminaries, and immediately afterwards, as a field of corn. Either of these metaphors singly might have been allowed; but both of them cannot be applied to the same objects, at the same time, without absurdity. — The two last lines are frivolous and insignificant, falsely ascribing to the care and discipline of Dr. Busby, a natural and necessary effect.

Sir Edward Coke is said to have been,

‘ Legum anima, interpres, oraculum non dubium arcanorum,

‘ *Promus-condus mysteriorum*,

Cujus ferè unius beneficîo,

Jurisperiti nostri sunt jurisperiti.

Eloquentiæ fumen, torrens, fulmen;

Suadæ sacerdos unicus;

*Divinus heros*.<sup>3</sup>

Here is a multitude of words, and most of them to the same effect. *Promus-condus mysteriorum* is an ambiguous expression, and no great compliment to a lawyer; for it signifies a man, who *brings forth*, and *boards up* mysteries for future occasions; that is, one who deals in the quirks and subtleties of the law. *Torrens* after *fumen* is an anticlimax; and *fulmen* a metaphor inconsistent with either. *Divinus heros* is a pompous phrase without any meaning.

Nothing

Nothing in nature can be more opposite and incommutable than fire and water; yet in the inscription on the tomb of Baptista Marinus we are told, that this wonderful genius drew fire from the waters of Permessus.

‘ *Hastio è Permessi undā volucrī quodam igne poespos,*  
*Grandiore ingenii vena effervuit.*’

In the epitaph of Nathanael Mather, a celebrated divine among the Dissenters, the author, who, if we rightly recollect, was Dr. Watts, speaking of divine grace, which the preacher was supposed to communicate, uses this vulgar metaphor.

‘ *Gratiam Jesu Christi salutiferam,*  
*Quam abunde haufit ipse, aliis propinavit,*  
*Puram ab humana fæce.*’

The excellence of sepulchral compositions, as we have already observed, consists in an expressive brevity. Not an epithet should be admitted, which is either superfluous, or calculated to debase the sentiment. The author of the inscription on the monument of admiral Churchill, concludes with this account of his death.

‘ *Laboribus tandem & morbis confectus,*  
*Inter amplexus & lachrymas*  
*Amicorum, clientum, &c.*  
*Pius, tranquillus, animosus, cælebs*  
*Obiit.*’

*Animosus* denotes the fire and activity of a hero in the hour of battle; not the proper fortitude of a Christian on his death-bed. *Cælebs* is a despicable anticlimax. If there had been any other word between *tranquillus* and *obit* it should have been *impavidus*, or some expression to the same effect. Though indeed any degree of heroism beyond a calm tranquillity must rather spring from foolhardiness, than a due sense of the weakness and unworthiness of man, in the awful crisis of death.

In the epitaph on the celebrated Gerhard Vossius, we have the following lines.

‘ *Invida mors ridet, ridet quoque Vossius, illam*  
*Dum calamo mortem vineit & ingenio.*’

This couplet gives us the picture of a piece of low buffoonery, a ludicrous contest between death and Vossius.

In the inscription on the monument of lord chancellor Forescue, the author thus pens upon his name.

‘ *Lex viva ille fuit patrize, lex splendida legis,*  
*Forte bonis scutum, sertibus & scutica.*’

Of all the absurdities, which can enter into the composition of an epitaph, conceits, puns, and quibbles are the most intolerable.

We shall conclude these few cursory remarks with an inscription, which is expressed with great simplicity, and at the same time, a suitable dignity and elevation of language.

‘H. S. E.

ISAACUS NEWTON, Eques Auratus,  
 Qui, animi vi propè divinâ,  
 Planetarum motus figurâ  
 Cometarum semitas, oceanique æstus,  
 Suâ Mathesi facem præferente,  
 Primus demonstravit;  
 Radiorum lucis dissimilitudines,  
 Colorumque inde nascentium proprietates,  
 Quas nemo antea vel suspicatus erat pervestigavit,  
 Naturæ antiquitatis, S. Scripturæ,  
 Sedulus, sagax, fidus interpres.  
 Dei O. M. magistatem philosophiâ aperuit,  
 Evangelii simplicitatem moribus expressit.  
 Sibi gratulentur mortales,  
 Tale tantumque extitisse  
 HUMANI GENERIS decus.  
 Obiit 20 Mar. 1726.  
 Ætat. 84.’

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*A Military Course for the Government and Conduct of a Battalion, designed for their Regulations in Quarter, Camp, or Garrison; with useful Observations and Instructions for their Manner of Attack and Defence. By Thomas Simes, Esq. 8vo. 9s. 6d. in boards. Almon.*

THE title, in a tolerable degree, indicates the nature of the materials of which the book is composed. We are not presented with the science of war, in its proper signification; Mr. Simes contents himself with detailing the manœuvres, ceremonies, forms of books, of orders, &c. used in a battalion. The articles treated of, are indeed very numerous, and often unimportant and trifling, at least they seem so to us, to whom the number of buttons and button-holes on waistcoats, &c. are of little consequence. But the book is written intirely for the use of the army, who will find in it a mass of ceremonious articles, of useful information, for their conduct in many situations.

From the nature of this work, very little of it admits of being extracted for public inspection. The hints, however, on

gun-

gunpowder, being a subject not confined to the military, may be given as a specimen of the author's manner of writing.

‘ How to prove the goodness of Gun-powder by the Sight, the Touch, and by the Fire.

‘ As to the first: when you perceive your powder more black than usual, it is a certain sign that it is too moist, and if you put it upon some white paper, and find that it blackens it, you may assure yourself that there is too much charcoal amongst it: but if it be of a deep ash colour, inclining a little to the red, it is a sure sign that your powder is good.

‘ To try Gun-powder by the Touch.

‘ Bruise some grains or corns of it with the end of your finger, and if it readily disperses and yields easily to the pressure of your finger, you may conclude that there is too much charcoal in it. If upon squeezing or pressing it a little strong upon a marble or smooth wooden table, you feel particles that are harder than the rest, which prick you a little, and that cannot be crushed without some difficulty, you may infer that the sulphur is not well incorporated with the salt-petre, and that consequently the powder is not duly prepared.

‘ In short, you may determine with the utmost certainty concerning the goodness or badness of your gun-powder by means of fire as follows: lay little parcels or heaps of gun-powder upon a clean smooth table, at the distance of two or three inches from one another, and set fire to one of them; which if it blows up at once without catching hold of any other parcels, and makes a little sort of an acute noise, or produces a white, clear smoke, rising with a sudden velocity, and appearing in the air like a little circle or diadem of smoke, you may depend upon its being perfectly well prepared. If after this powder is enkindled, there remains any black spots upon the table, it will be a sign that there is a great deal of charcoal in it which has not been sufficiently burnt: if the board is as it were greasy, you may be assured that the sulphur and salt-petre have not been sufficiently purified or purged of that noxious and vicious humour, which is natural to both the one and the other of them. If you find any small particles which are white or inclining to lemon-colour, it will be a mark that your sulphur is not well clarified, and consequently that it still retains earthy particles, or common salt; and moreover, that the sulphur is not compounded or ground enough, not sufficiently incorporated with the two other ingredients of the composition.

‘ To restore damaged Gun-powder.

‘ If powder be long in a damp place, it will become damaged, and formed into hard lumps: when thus cemented, you will see, at the bottom of the barrel, some salt-petre, which, by being wet, will separate from the salt-petre and coal, and always

always fall to the bottom and settle there in the form of a white downy matter ; to prevent this, move the barrels as often as convenient, and place them on their contrary sides or ends to which they stood before ; though great care be taken of powder, and kept as dry as possible, yet length of time will greatly lessen its former strength.

When any of the abovementioned accidents happen to your powder, you may recover it by applying to the directions here given, viz. if the powder has not received much damage proceed thus : spread it on canvas cloth, or dry boards, and expose it to the sun ; then add to it an equal quantity of good powder, mix them well, and when quite dry, barrel it up. If gunpowder be very bad, the method to restore it is, first to know what it weighed when good ; then, by weighing it again, you will find how much it has lost by the separation and evaporation of the saltpetre ; then add to it as much refined saltpetre as it has lost in weight ; but, as a large quantity would be difficult to mix, it will be necessary to add a proportion of nitre to every twenty pounds of powder ; when done, put one of these proportions into your mealing-table, and grind it therein, till you have brought it to an impalpable powder ; then searce it with a fine sieve ; if any remain in the sieve that will not pass through, return it to the table, and grind it again, till you have made it all fine enough to go through the sieve : being well ground and sifted, it must be made into grains thus : first, you must have some copper wire sieves made according to what size you intend the grains to be ; these are called corning sieves, or grainers ; fill them with the powder composition, then shake them about, and the powder will pass through the sieve formed into grains. Having thus corned your powder, set it in the sun ; and when quite dry, searce it with a fine hair sieve, to separate the dust from the grains. This dust may be worked up again with another mixture ; so that none of the powder will be wasted : sometimes it may happen, that the weight of the powder when good cannot be known ; in which case, add to each pound an ounce or an ounce and an half of saltpetre, according as the powder is decayed ; then grind, sift, and granulate it, as before directed.

*N. B.* If a large quantity of powder is quite spoiled, the only way is to extract the saltpetre from it, as powder thus circumstanced would be difficult to recover.

#### How to extract Saltpetre from damaged Gun-powder.

You must have filtering bags hung on a rack, with glazed earthen pans under them ; then take any quantity of damaged powder, and put it into a copper, with as much clean water as will just cover it ; and, when it begins to boil, take off the scum, and, after it has boiled a little, stir it up, take it out of the copper with a small hand kettle, and then put some in each bag, beginning at one end of the rack, so that by the time you have got to the last bag, the first will be ready for more ; continue thus

thus till all the bags are full: then take the liquor out of the pans, which boil and filter as before, two or three times, till the water runs quite clear, which you must let stand in the pans for some time, and the saltpetre will appear at the top.

‘ To get all the saltpetre entirely out of the powder, the water from the saltpetre already extracted, to which add some fresh water and the dregs of the powder that remain in the bags, and put them together in a vessel, to stand as long as you please; and when you want to extract the nitre, you must proceed with this mixture as with the powder at first, by which means you extract all the saltpetre: but this process must be boiled longer than the first.’

The following short extract places in a strong light the *brutality* and *honourable* means of carrying on the art of war.

‘ When you are certain the enemy will besiege you, stop up the avenues leading to the place with bodies of large trees, &c. burn mills, cut your dikes, and drown the country if you can; drive in cattle, and bring in forage, &c. of all kinds; and lastly, set fire to every house and place round about the garrison.

‘ Make the inhabitants and soldiers believe that succours are coming to your relief, and for which purpose produce sham letters and messengers.

‘ Have in the enemy’s camp some faithful spies, who may give you secret intelligence of all their movements, by throwing into your works or other places appointed, letters tied to lead or stones, and when you find them true and exact, reward them generously. They are cheap at any price.’

Mr. Simes then relates a few stories of some curious means by which places have been surprised.

‘ A siege, says he, is a busines of schemes and projects; and there are numberless precautions which escape the foresight of many employed upon that occasion, though a skilful and experienced enemy may soon, perhaps, observe them and artfully take occasions for making some fine strokes: history contains such examples, which are only rare now a-days, because we do not study them sufficiently; but an elevated genius, from a combination of ideas, depending on a thorough knowledge of the enemy’s situation, will soon find his advantage in perfectly understanding them.

‘ A place is surprised by drains, casemates, or the issues of rivers or canals; by encumbering the bridges or gates by waggons meeting and stopping each other; sending soldiers into the place under pretence of deserters who on entering surprize the guard, being sustained by troops at ambush near at hand, to whom they give admittance; soldiers sometimes dressed like peasants, merchants, Jews, priests, workmen, or women, and as such presenting themselves at your gate are immediately admitted.

‘ Henry

• Henry the Fourth of France lost Amiens, in Picardy, by a waggoner letting fall a sack of nuts, as if by accident; for while the soldiers of the guard were picking them up, the Spaniards, who had disguised themselves like peasants on purpose, rushed out of a house near the gate, where they had laid in ambush, put them to the sword, and carried the town.

• The blockade of Sardis by Antiochus the Great, says he, had lasted two years, when Lagoras of Crete, a man of extensive knowledge, put an end to it in the following manner: he considered that the strongest fortifications are often taken with the greatest ease; for the besieged in such places are generally negligent; and, trusting to the natural or artificial defences of their town, are at no pains to guard it: he knew likewise that they are often taken at the strongest places, from the besieged being persuaded that their enemy will not attempt to attack them where they think themselves impregnable. Upon these considerations, though he knew it universally believed that Sardis could not be taken by assault, and that hunger could induce its defenders to open the gates, yet he hoped to succeed; for the knowledge of his difficulties but increased his zeal.

• Having perceived that a part of the wall which joined the citadel to the town, was built upon a rock extremely high and steep; and that from thence, as into an abyss, the people of the town threw down the carcases of dead horses, on which great numbers of carnivorous birds assembled daily to feed, and after having filled themselves, never failed to rest upon the top of the rock or wall, our Cretan concluded that no guard could be near it.

• He went to this place, examined carefully its approach, and where to fix his ladders; having found a proper spot for his purpose, he informed the king of his discovery, and acquainted him with his design. Antiochus, delighted with the project, advised Lagoras to pursue it, and granted him two officers, whom he asked for, as people possessed of qualities necessary for assisting him.

• These three, on consultation, resolved to execute their project the next night, at the end of which there was no moon; that being come, they chose fifteen of their stoutest and bravest men to carry ladders, scale the walls, and run the same risk that they did: they likewise took thirty others, and placed them in ambush in the ditch, to assist those who scaled the wall in breaking down a gate; at which two thousand more from the king were to enter: Antiochus favoured their enterprize by marching the rest of his army to the opposite side: Lagoras and his people approached softly with their ladders, and having scaled the rock, they broke open the gate, let in the two thousand, cut the throats of all they met, and set fire to the houses; so that the town was pillaged and ruined in an instant.

• Young officers who read this account, ought to reflect on this attack: the penetration of Lagoras, in making his discovery;

covery; his attention in going himself to examine the proper places for fixing his ladders; his discernment in the choice of officers and soldiers to support him; and the harmony of the whole means which were employed on that occasion, afford very excellent lessons for any officers who may attempt such attacks.

‘ Though stupendous rocks may be thought inaccessible by the besieged, yet this is a proof that none are insurmountable to such penetrating geniuses as Antiochus’s engineer.

‘ Captain Vedel was once detached to a village where the curate of the parish had obtained leave from the commanding-officer to make a procession of the penitents of a neighbouring convent to a chapel in the village which he named; alledging that it was an annual custom; but the captain being astonished to see that such a numerous procession could be composed of devotees, beat to arms, and having drawn up his party of fifty men, disconcerted their scheme; for many in the procession, which he stopped, were found to be peasants, armed with pistols and swords, whom the commanding-officer, upon being informed of his discovery, caused immediately to be hanged with the curate and several of the penitents.

‘ In 1708, M. de Schower surprised Benevarvi in Spain, by the Spaniards neglecting the guard of an old cattle at the entrance of the place, which he seized by a forced march in the night, and then detached several parties to attack the town: the garrison, confused by such a visit, sought for safety in flight, and ran to take shelter in the citadel; but were scarcely entered before they were made prisoners; the enemy succeeded by the garrison’s suspecting no danger.

‘ Counterfeiting a rquite from their prince or general for the marching in of troops, under pretence of reinforcing the garrison, and to prevent a discovery, they put in practice the following stratagem:

‘ They fix upon a person of the same country as of those who compose the garrison, dressed in an officer’s uniform of the same pattern as those of their own troops; who rides up to the barrier, asks for the officer of the guard, and having shewn him the route, desires as a favour, his permission for the men to march in directly, as they are very much fatigued, and that they will remain about the guard-room door till he has received the governor or commandant’s orders concerning them.

‘ The officer not suspecting but they were friends, complied with the request; upon which they marched in, seized the guard, and immediately sent detachments to take possession of the other gates; while the main body marched in at the same time, surprised the troops in barracks and quarters, made the governor or commandant prisoner, and put all to the sword who made the least resistance, or fired out of windows, &c.’

*A Treatise on Practical Seamanhip, &c. by W. Hutchinson.*

12s. 6d. Board. Richardson and Urquhart.

In the address prefixed to this work, the author gives the fol-

lowing modest account of his undertaking.

‘ This Treatise on Practical Seamanhip, with hints and re-  
marks relating thereto, as mentioned in the contents, is hum-  
bly addressed to all whom the different parts mostly concern; but  
more especially to young sea officers, who use their utmost en-  
deavours, under Providence, to make the knowledge and dis-  
charge of their duty in their stations, the principal pleasure  
and pursuit of their time, which may make them a benefit and  
not a burden to their country, their friends, and themselves, in  
their voyage through life.’

‘ It must be allowed, that the improvement of our ships,  
and the management of them, for many years past, has given  
that remarkable superiority British seamen have over others, on  
all important occasions. Yet I have learned from experience,  
that this art of seamanship, and its importance, is not so gene-  
rally understood amongst us as it deserves, for one trading part  
of the nation has, by their practice, the experience the other  
wants.

‘ Some men are so devoted to the methods they have been ac-  
customed to, that they cannot be prevailed upon to try another; others  
endeavour to try impracticable methods, and attempt to  
make ships do impossibilities, such as to back them astern clear  
of a single anchor, when the wind is right against the windward  
tide, that drives them to windward of their anchors; or to back  
a ship with sails so set as to prevent her from shooting a head  
towards a danger when laid to, or driving broad side with the  
wind right against the tide, not knowing that a ship driving on  
either tack will always shoot and advance bodily forward, the  
way her head lies, in spite of any sails that can be set aback;  
all which, I trust, will be shewn in their proper place in the  
following work.

‘ Not only the above instances, (by which I have known ships  
go on shore,) but the whole duty and conduct of sea officers, as  
far as mentioned in this book, has hitherto been left entirely  
to the slow progress of experience, by which they, and all con-  
cerned with them, are constantly liable to be great sufferers by  
mistaken practices in seamanship.

‘ Frequent observations of this defect, induced me to en-  
deavour to fix the best rules of practical seamanship, that seamen  
may not be left entirely to learn their duty by their own and other  
people’s misfortunes, which has been the case hitherto, but by  
the experience of others who have gone before them. From all  
that I have seen, in the many different trades that I have been  
employed in, those seamen in the coal and coasting trade, to the  
city of London, are the most perfect in working and managing

their ships in narrow, intricate, and difficult channels, and in tide ways ; and the seamen in the East India trade are so on the open seas.

‘ I have heard it was said by the great doctor Halley, that the safety of navigating ships, in his time, depended principally upon three L’s, meaning lead, latitude, and lookout. But a late mathematician, a friend of mine at Liverpool, said, that there was no hidden or unknown principles concerned in the art of building, sailing, working, and managing of ships, but the laws of motion, the pressure of fluids, and the properties of the leaver, which are all well known to the British philosophers and mathematicians, and nothing so much deserved their attention and pursuit, to bring this art to its utmost perfection for the welfare and support of Great Britain.

‘ These reasons, and that of the most of the useful arts having been made public, to our great improvement and advantage, emboldens me to publish this laboured performance on this long neglected subject, which, I must own, will appear to great disadvantage from the unexpected difficulties I have found, in being a new writer venturing to lead the way on so important and extensive a subject, in this learned criticising age ; but for my imperfections, as a scholar, I hope the critics will make allowance for my having been early in life at sea as cook of a collier ; and having since then gone through all the most active enterprising employments I could meet with, as a seaman, who has done his best, and who, as an author, would be glad of any remarks candidly pointed out how to improve his defects, if there should be a demand for second edition.

After this simple and ingenuous conclusion, it would have been cruel to criticise severely a performance so well intended, even if we had found the work in general deserving of animadversion. It is, however, but doing the author justice to acknowledge that, excepting those defects, and for which the apology he has made may be admitted as sufficient, we have, on a careful perusal, found his book filled with materials equally new and useful.

The performance is not of that kind which usually passes under the title of a *Treatise of Navigation*, containing only the mathematical rules and methods of computing a ship’s way and run on her various courses ; but it includes the mechanical conduct or working of a ship in all situations, besides a practical account of every thing proper to be done on such occasions. The directions and observations under the several heads are taken from, and illustrated by practical cases, in which the author was concerned, and which serve greatly to enforce the precepts he endeavours to inculcate. The directions and observations seem both to result from good sense, and a careful attention to circumstances.

Although

Although the language and method may be condemned as defective, they are sufficient to render the dissertations clear, and not unpleasant; the descriptions are also illustrated with many useful copper-plates. To enumerate the contents would give no adequate idea of this performance: recommending it therefore to the attention of practical mariners, and to commanders in particular, we shall take our leave of it with the following short specimen, on towing and rowing a ship in chase.

• Chasing in little winds and calms, may often require both to tow and row the ship with oars, therefore, to do it in the most advantageous manner, deserves notice. When towing a ship to make her steer and work, it may require the tow-rope not only from the bowsprit end, but from the jib boom end, which will give more power in proportion as it is farther from the ship's turning motion to pull her about, but when towing to give a ship the most head way possible, the tow-rope should be made fast no higher than necessary to keep it clear of the water.

• To row the ship with oars, the oars should be made suitable to the room the ship affords to row and stow them.—In the Liverpool privateer, we rowed with eleven oars on each side, and sculled with two, run out right aft, after the manner of the Chinese. And in order to add more power, by more people pulling altogether, at the oars on each side, and prevent the confusion and hindrance that is occasioned by the people's not pulling all together, we had swifters for each side, made of single ropes with gromits in them, at the same distance of the row-ports from each other, and put on the handles of the oars so that men could pull between the oars by these swiflers, which after a little practice, soon made all the people pull completely together.

The two sculling oars abaft were made crooked or curved, with the flat of their blades bending downwards, and an iron socket nailed to the under part of the oar at the port, when the blade was flat in the water, and a short bolt tapered and filed like a wood screw, with a round head, was fixed in the middle of the ports for the oars to turn upon, the staples in the deck, right under the handle of the oars, to hook a line with an eye-splice on the handle of the oar that bears the strain, whilst the men scull by standing on each side of the handle of the oar, and only have to pull to, and push from them with all their strength, which makes the blade cant and act slanting downwards into the water each way with great power, to give the ship head way, and may likewise help to steer the ship and bring her about from one tack to the other, when it cannot be done by the rudder, and sweep a ship stern about as occasion may require, when engaging in a calm. The comparative power and effect of sculling oars, to force a vessel through the water, is indisputably proved in China, where the people appeared to me no ways expert in their navigation, but in this method of sculling all their very

numerous river vessels and passage boats great and small without any sail or rudder: and this they do in a more dexterous easy and expeditious manner, in my opinion, than any other part of the world that I have seen. I have observed with pleasure their vessels with 20 tons of goods and room to accommodate their families, sculled by two men only, from the city of Canton (20 miles) to our ships, stemming and sculling against the tide, running above two miles an hour and laying the ships on board in a safe and easy manner. And not only their large river vessels, but their small boats are moved very fast through the water by this method of sculling. I was once in a fine eight oar'd pinnace that was beat with ease and laughed at by two men in one of their common bumb-boats in spite of our utmost endeavours, this therefore deserves notice, and might in my opinion be brought into useful practice among us, on many occasions, in narrow rivers, canals, boats to land numbers of men where there is not room to row with oars, and our whale boats, &c for with the very power they scull the vessel a head they steer her at the same time, which must on this account be much better than a rudder, that stops water, as has been observed on rudders. I cannot forbear here remarking that these Chinese sculling vessels are built upon good principles to answer their propose, as all vessels that are to be moved with oars or paddles ought to be, having flat rounding bottoms, with flanging projecting bows and sterns, without keel, stem or stern post to hinder their ready turning, and drawing so little water that they are easily made to skim in a manner, at a great rate over the surface of it, where the particles give way much easier than they can do at a greater depth, and their method of sculling makes (them as much as possible for art) to imitate the nature of porpoises, which scull with their horizontal tails swifter than any other fish we see at sea, where they frequently seem to sport and mock a ship when sailing at the rate of ten miles an hour, and will swim as may be observed sculling with their horizontal tails cross and cross the ships bows at such an angle, that they cannot go less than at the rate of 30 miles an hour, which must be allowed to make greatly in favour of the Chinese method of sculling their vessels, instead of rowing them as we do with oars, which are levers, and our method of applying their power in rowing, will in my opinion never be beat, by any complicated machinery.'

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*Historical and practical Enquiries on the Section of the Symphysis of the Pubes, as a Substitute for the Cæsarian Operation, performed at Paris, by M. Sigault, October 2, 1777. By M. Alphonse Le Roy. Translated from the French, by Lewis Poig-nand. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Baldwin.*

SO early as the time of Hippocrates it was observed, that in pregnant women, the bones of the pelvis gradually separate from each other, by a dilatation of the substance which connects

needs them; but though the justness of this remark has been repeatedly admitted by anatomical writers, it was not till lately been rendered subservient to any useful purpose in the practice of the obstetrical art. The person entitled to the honour of this invention is Mr. Sigault, a French physician, who, in 1768, proposed the section of the symphysis of the pubes as a substitute for the Cæsarian operation, so often productive of the most fatal consequences; and the utility of this practice was exemplified last year in the case of Mrs. Souchot, on whom he made the experiment, in conjunction with Mr. Le Roy, the author of these Enquiries. After informing our readers that Mrs. Souchot was a deformed woman, of a small stature, with a narrow pelvis, we shall present them with the account of the operation.

‘ I observed that the child presented by its feet, that the orifice of the uterus was very much dilated, and that the diameter, from the anterior to the posterior part of the pelvis, did not exceed two inches and a half. I told Mr. Sigault, that as the diameter of a child’s head at its birth is usually at least three inches and a quarter, it would be impossible for it to be delivered at an aperture of only two inches and a half; that consequently she must submit to the Cæsarian operation, or that which we intended to substitute for it, to which last she consented.

‘ Every thing being got ready, we folded the matras three times, and placed her on it. We began by feeling for the middle part of the cartilage of the symphyses, which we readily discovered by the finger. I advised Mr. Sigault to begin the section of the superior part of the symphyses, but not above the pyramidal muscles, and to do it by two incisions. First, to divide the integuments as far as the middle of the pubes, while I held the lower part downwards, and then to begin the section of the cartilage. Secondly, to finish the incision of the integuments, without any fear of hemorrhage obstructing him in the section of the cartilage. Mr. Sigault had nothing but a common history to perform this operation with. The thighs being opened and raised, he performed it in the manner mentioned. The moment the separation was completed, the pubes parted, as if the string of a bow had been divided, and receded to each side under the integuments. I immediately began to extract the child after Mr. Sigault had broke the membrane, and brought the feet as far as the os externum. I first made myself sure of the extent of the separation which we had gained by the section, in order to judge of a proper method to extract the head. I laid my four knuckles in the space procured by the section, which measured two inches

inches and a half, an extent somewhat more than that which I had gained upon the body of Mrs. Brasseur, which gave me pleasure. The child's heels were turned to the right side, and I extracted the body by gentle efforts, which I directed towards the lateral parts entirely, and not to the spine. I disengaged the left arm, and then the right, the head being still above the brim of the pelvis, I applied my hand to the face, which corresponded with the symphyses of the left ilium; I opened her thighs as far as I could, and fixed the largest portion of the right parietal in the separation. The integuments projected; I made the left parietal answer to the right lateral side of the hollow of the sacrum; afterwards, upon raising the body of the child, I drew out the left lateral side of the head, while at the same time with the right hand applied to the nasal fossa, I brought the chin downwards. By these united efforts I overcame the greatest resistance at the brim of the pelvis. When it had now gained the hollow of the sacrum, I brought the occiput between the separation, and disengaged the chin at the inferior part of the os externum, by raising the child's body; the rest of the body followed presently, and the patient was delivered, to her great joy, of a living son. The thighs being lowered, the separation appeared not to exceed eight lines. I immediately extracted the placenta, because the uterus began to contract itself exceedingly.

During this operation, which was neither very painful nor tedious, the woman lost very little blood, and the husband being called in, could scarce give credit to so fortunate and speedy a delivery. We applied some lint to the wound, and removed the patient on the matras, in order to make her bed. Upon the least opening of her thighs she felt very acute pains in the left posterior side of the loins and pelvis. We applied a napkin, by way of bandage, to keep the pelvis in a just position, to which we fastened two ribbands behind, one on the right, the other on the left, and brought them under the thighs, in order to tie them before. When put to bed, we found her pulse was not affected, and enraptured at becoming a mother, she requested us to give her the child, in order to suckle it.'

Mrs. Brasseur, whose name is mentioned in this narrative, was a person on whose body Mr. Le Roy made trial of the operation, immediately after she had expired from the injurious treatment of a woman who attempted to deliver her.

Mr. Le Roy informs us, that he has performed the section of the pubes upon dead subjects, both male and female. In the former he observed a separation of between two and three lines

lines space, and in the latter from three to four; but in those who died in child-bed he constantly gained from six to nine lines.

Both Mr. Sigault and Mr. Le Roy have received distinguished honours from the faculty of physic at Paris, for the zeal with which they have prosecuted this extraordinary improvement in midwifery; and it is to be hoped that many lives may henceforth be preserved, by the performance of this operation.

*The History of the Holy Bible. As contained in the sacred Scriptures of the Old and New Testaments. Attempted in easy Verse. With occasional Notes. By John Fellows. 4 Vols. Small 8vo. 8s. 6d. served. Hogg.*

**T**HREE is no book in the world, which it is so difficult to translate into verse, as the Bible. The majesty of the sacred writers is almost incompatible with the levity of the Muse; especially in the light, airy measure of eight syllables. This writer, we really believe, has taken infinite pains to render his versification easy and harmonious. But whilst he is pursuing the sublime, he frequently falls into the bathos. Thus, in describing the deluge, he says,

‘ The driving storm each sinner feels,  
With mighty waters at his heels.’

‘ Huge giants plunge amidst the tides,  
Which rolling lash their brazeny sides.’

‘ Lash’d by fierce winds, old ocean raves,  
And madly brows about his waves.’

‘ Seas, storms, and clouds, together blend,  
Foam, smoke, and dashing roar and rend.’

In versifying the story of Balaam’s ass, he uses this familiar language.

‘ His thoughts on gain old Balaam plac’d,  
And buries on his ass with haste.’

But when the angel appeared with a sword in his hand,

———The trembling ass

Dares not draw nigh, or by it pass;  
But buels the rider to the ground.

Soon as his legs the old man found,  
To the poor brute in wrath he goes,  
And loads his hide with heavy blows.’

But

But as we have already intimated, that a poetical version of the Old and New Testament would be an arduous undertaking for the most exalted genius, we shall not attempt to expose any ludicrous passage, which might be found in this work, but shall subjoin only one extract, in which the author appears to more advantage. We must however premise, that we do not agree with him in supposing, that the devil carried our Saviour *on his back*, when he is said to have taken him up to the top of a high mountain in the wilderness. The original word *ταραχησας* conveys no such idea.

— The tempter takes  
The great Redeemer up, and makes  
For a vast mountain, on the crown  
He sets the sacred burden down.  
Then by his bold delusive powers,  
He brings vast cities, temples, towers,  
And all the glorious, glittering things,  
Which wait on empires, and on kings,  
Full in the sight: all round they lie,  
And swell upon the wandering eye:  
To fill the heart the whole combine,  
And all the gaudy landscape shine."

We freely allow, that there are many passages in this work, which are really poetical: but, upon the whole, we cannot but look upon this attempt as a transformation of the patriarchs, prophets, and apostles, into modern beaux.

The notes, which accompany this translation, are few and concise. The second contains this curious information.— 'About a mile from Damascus, in a valley, by the side of a hill, is a place, where a house now stands, which is shewn for the spot, where Cain murdered his brother. The Jewish writers say, that he was killed by a blow on the head with a stone. Milton says, he was slain with a stone; but supposes him to have received the blow on his stomach.'— This note, we suppose, is for the amusement of young readers.

These volumes are neatly printed, and adorned with elegant copper-plates.

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*The Example: or the History of Lucy Cleveland. By a Young Lady.*  
2 vols. 12mo. 5s. jewed. Fielding and Walker.

**W**HAT is the subject of this novel? Love.—What its story? Love.—What is it calculated to promote? Love, almighty Love.—The dear name of one of its ladies is no other

other than Delia.—Delia Morley; one of the names of Venus herself!—But then the novel is penned by the hand of a lady, who thus addresses the reader.

‘ When I attempt to interest an impartial public in favour of the following work, it is not from a vain hope, that it is deserving of the approbation of the judicious.—No, my hopes are better founded: a candid, a liberal, a generous public, will make the necessary allowances, for the first attempt of a young female adventurer in letters.’

Perfectly ready are we to make every allowance for this lady’s first appearance; we wish, however, that she had consulted some of her friends concerning that appearance: for we will do her the justice to say she discovers some ability; and much reading, especially among our poets.

But, beside that ‘ green and yellow melancholy’ of Shakspeare, which her fond pencil has thrown over the whole piece; the figures are not sufficiently marked. They have no characters.

‘ Thus did my worthy father delineate the many virtues of a man, whom your poor Lucy already began to find too formidable.—My vanity had suggested to me at the first interview, that I had made an equal impression on him—but when I heard he was already married! I was almost petrified by the intelligence.’

This is literally *falling in love*—tumbling headlong into the bottomless pit; not, like an engineer, making gradual approaches.

‘ A few days after, as I was expressing my gratitude for such disinterested, such unmerited friendship, the servant interrupted me by announcing, “ Captain Morley is arrived, sir, and requests half an hour’s conversation with you.”—Mr. Smyth left the room, but in a very short time returned, introducing Captain Morley to me.—“ There, Frank, said he, is a young amiable widow! what say you to her?” “ I say, replied Morley, nothing”—Nothing! reiterated Mr. Smyth, with great quickness, “ I thought, sir, you would have said much—and that to the purpose too, or I would never have introduced you to so much excellence!”

“ Dear sir, said Morley, you are so hasty, that you interrupt me most unfortunately. I was going to say, Nothing, that could be spoke with propriety in the lady’s presence—my sentiments respecting her, shall not long remain a secret, but when I have not been half an hour in the room with her, to say more would be indelicate to the highest degree.”—

Yet, in this half hour, more business it seems was transacted than common folk can credit.—Again—

‘ Mr.

‘Mr. Delmont visited us yesterday, and unless I am greatly mistaken, intirely deprived my sister of her heart.’

Happy Delmont, to make a conquest in a very first visit, before many commanders would have thought of opening the campaign! But all the ladies and gentlemen here are as combustible as gunpowder. Our authoress had previously paired all the drooping inhabitants of her pastoral grove; and it did not occur to her, that any reader would think that unnatural or sudden with which she had been long acquainted; or would endeavour to put asunder those her invention had joined together.

To unravel the whole complicated web of this entangled love-tale is impossible. The lady, who gives it the name of Lucy Cleveland, is rather singular in the article of her history. Her modesty falls in love, at first sight, with Mr. Boswell whom she understands to be married. As bigamy is not yet introduced into novels, she marries Mr. Arlington, because she could not marry Mr. Boswell. But, as soon as she has married Mr. A. she finds she might have married Mr. B., since his supposed wife was only his mistress. She is doomed, however, to the arms of Mr. A. who, at least, is indifferent to her; and Mr. B. pines in vain for his lovely Lucy. This knot of difficulties is at last cut by the scythe of death. Mr. A. most obligingly dies; and that, as suddenly as the heroes and heroines of the novel fall in love. Mr. B. changes his name to Seymour for a little fortune of 2000. a year, and Lucy Cleveland changes her name a second time to Seymour.

As to the influence which this novel may have upon the morals of its readers, the authoress indeed says—

‘All I intreat of those who may think it worth their while to form a judgment of the following work, or, who may be inclined to criticise on it, is, that they will recall to their remembrance the motive that first induced the undertaking: that of holding out a good *example* to my female readers.’

If to put together a bundle of incidents which the wildest child of romance can never believe—if to draw an extravagant picture which would soften the heart of the softest beholder—if to tell a tedious tale of love, with the perusal of which Love herself would be fatigued—if these be to ‘hold out a good example to female readers,’ then is Lucy Cleveland the most complete example of morality, wrapped up in the most engaging dress, which we remember to have seen.

*Friendship in a Nunnery; or, the American Fugitive.* 2 vols. 12mo.  
5s. sequit. Bew.

THE two volumes before us, like many of our modern novels, consist of a series of letters.—Our American fugitive should not complain of any want of her favourite *liberty*, in the nunnery in question, since she and her friend must have been permitted to divulge by letter all the secrets of the prison-house, and more perhaps ‘than imagination ever formed of gorgons, hydras, and chimeras dire;’ or we should never have perused the present performance.

Its story is this—Miss Gerrard’s widowed mamma, thinking the young lady too tall for her own schemes in life, sends her to a convent. An intimacy soon commences between her and Miss Smith, who is driven to board in the same convent by the American troubles. Miss Gerrard, upon her mother’s marrying again, takes the veil, in a short time after Louisa, a most beautiful French lady. An English nobleman, upon his travels, had been enamoured of Louisa, previously to this fatal step, and did not afterwards drop his hopes. Louisa and Miss Gerrard become exceedingly intimate. By virtue of constant letters from Miss Gerrard and the American fugitive, to Miss Freeman in England, we are made acquainted with the vices and allurements of convents, with the dangers which virtue and religion run within their holy walls. This intelligence is not new to the world, nor all of it perhaps agreeable to truth; but mothers and guardians may profit by what cannot easily be exaggerated, by what they cannot be told too often.

In a little time lord D—, Louisa’s lover, visits the lady abbess in a female disguise; and, by the friendship of a cardinal, he and his friend, Mr. Venols, are soon made priests, and confessors to the convent. They bring with them from Rome a dangerous and infectious fever, which soon obligingly thins the sisterhood, and gives opportunity to the two disguised fathers to convey the dead bodies of two other nuns into the cells of Louisa and Miss Getrard; and to convey them, in disguise out of the convent. The unfortunate American has before quitted it, upon gaining a trifling prize in the English lottery of 20,000*l.* The civil fever never presumes to approach the parties concerned in this novel; the two confessors soon follow the ladies, and leave the infection to devour the few remaining nuns.

Upon the arrival of all the parties in England, Louisa discards her titled deliverer, and goes off with an ensign, who made love to her in the passage from Calais.—Lord D— notwithstanding his disappointment, for marriages there must

be in the last page or two of these histories, takes to wife Miss Freeman ; his friend Venol marries the American fugitive ; and Miss Gerard, after all, remains single, that she may have more time, we suppose, to write improbable novels.

The following extracts will show the politics of this novel ; and, at the same time, may serve as a specimen of its style and language, which, to say truth, are of a superior order.

‘ My countrymen were actuated by far different motives : they fought only to convince the king they loved, that his ministers were *deceived* or *deceiving*, and to avert an evil their shoulders were unable to sustain. This was the spark which the Scotch soon blew into a flame ; it was flying in the face of *majesty*, to arraign the wisdom of the *minister*—and whitening all at once by our side, we, poor Americans, with English hearts in our bosoms, and English blood in our veins, were proclaimed rebels.—Scotchmen surrounded the throne—Long live the *power*, the *will* of royalty, was the word—until the pleadings of parental tenderness were borne down—and two-thirds of the British troops, reluctant, sent forth to slaughter their brothers, and chastise the conduct they secretly applauded.—Hence all the Scotch fugitives got into office, (the navy and army saving them from famine and drudgery,) and with sword in hand, as every bad woman is said to hunt down a betrayed innocent, advanced to *scourge* us into subjection. But the true point of pity and ridicule is, that the Americans were represented to the sovereign as an ignorant, feeble race, who would fly before a handful of British soldiers : the bravery and resolution with which they fought under the English banner, during the last war, was wholly forgotten.—Hear these truths, said the little Niobe—hear my wrongs, cried she, bursting into tears, now that her rage had spent itself—and learn to revere a nation that will teach you, though sorely against their wishes—no human power shall oppress them with *impunity*.’

This, and much more of the same kind which these volumes contain, would make a capital figure in the most conspicuous column of a republican print. The misfortune of it is, in our political novel, all this learning comes from a young lady who is ‘ turned of fourteen.’ What may not be expected from the old men and sages of that happy continent, when its maidens, its babes and lucklings talk, and write, and reason thus !

—**FOREIGN**

## FOREIGN ARTICLES.

*Monument élevé à la Gloire de Pierre le Grand, ou Relation des Travaux & des Moyens mécaniques qui ont été employés pour transporter à Petersbourg un Rocher trois millions pesant, destiné à servir de Base à la Statue équestre de cet Empereur, avec un Examen physique & chymique du même Rocher. Par le Comte Marin Carburi de Céffalone, &c. with Plates. Folio. 47 Pages. Paris.*

SURELY it was the same creative, bold, and persevering genius who enabled Peter the Great to raise Russia towards its present power and rank in the world, that also inspired Catherina the Second with the sublime thought of rearing his monument on a basis that bids fair to last as long as his name or earth itself! For never could the difficulty, the rapidity, and the success of his achievements have been more nobly expressed than by exhibiting him to posterity, as arriving on full gallop on the summit of a steep and craggy rock. This rock was to form the basis of his equestrian statue. That this basis might consist of one piece, hard enough to resist the effects of the northern frosts, so destructive to the finest and firmest buildings, were points ardently to be wished, but hardly to be hoped for. The first difficulty was to find out a rock both large and hard enough for this purpose; and the next, to transport it from its native place to that of its future destination. But fortune favoured the efforts of genius. Count Carburi, who, under Mr. de Betzki's auspices, directed the labours at the monument, was told by a peasant, that there was a very large rock, in a morass near the bay of the Gulph of Finland, at six wersts (or Russian miles, at  $10\frac{1}{4}$  to a degree) distance from the banks of the water, and twenty wersts, (considering the turnings of the river by which it was transported,) from the capital. Thither count Carburi therefore instantly went on foot, the only means of arriving there: he found the rock overgrown with moss; caused all its angles to be searched; and found its basis flat. Its figure was a parallelepipedon, forty-two feet long, twenty-seven feet in breadth, and twenty-one feet high. Its weight was afterwards found to be three millions of pounds.

Its breadth and height were abundantly sufficient to afford such a pedestal for the statue as Mr. Falconet had conceived; who therefore ardently desired its transportation; but with many other judicious persons, thought it an undertaking far above the reach of human and of mechanical powers. It was then proposed to break the rock into four or six parts; a scheme which, had it been adopted, would have deprived it of its chief value; but fortunately its size and value were protected by its hardness. For as it could only have been sawed like porphyry, the length of the saws and that of the time to be employed on this task, would have rendered it a very expensive operation; and by every other method of breaking it, it must have been endangered.

All these considerations determined count Carburi to try to transport it entire. But the enormous mass lay in the midst of a very deep morass, sunk fifteen feet into the ground, whence it was to be lifted; and carried over brooks and eminences; to be embarked and transported on the Neva; and disembarked. Perhaps nothing but a lucky ignorance of all the real difficulties, says our noble author, could have induced me to risk the undertaking.

Having

Having therefore nearly completed his measures and combined his operations, he proposed it to Mr. de Betzki, who not only approved but encouraged the hazardous attempt.

The count began with designing and constructing a model of the machine by means of which the rock was to be transported. This machine is very minutely delineated in the plates, to which we must refer our readers. Having completed the model, he placed three thousand pounds weight upon it, and very easily moved it with one finger. He now no longer doubted of the power and success of the machine itself; and in the summer of 1768, set out for the place with four hundred workmen; for whose accommodation barracks were erected; and caused the ground, from the rock to the river Neva, to be cleared to the breadth of twenty fathoms. When the frost was become hard enough; a space of fourteen fathoms in breadth, and fifteen feet deep, was excavated round the rock, in order to raise it from its bed. It was absolutely necessary to turn it, and for this purpose large levers, each composed of three masts, of fifteen or eighteen inches in diameter, and sixty-five feet in length, were made; piles were then driven into the ground, to serve for props to these levers, and their upper ends were drawn by capstans. Two drummers, posted on the rock gave the signals, for the uniformity of the manœuvres. Towards the end of March 1769, the rock was raised on its bed. These operations were greatly facilitated by the general skill of the Russian peasants and soldiers in carpenter's work. Wherever the morass could not freeze to its bottom, piles were driven in, and a road was made, consisting of alternate strata of small fir-trees stript of their branches, and of gravel.

In order to lift the rock on the machine that was to transport it to the water-side, twelve iron pulleys were applied; four capstans drew it over a glacis or inclined plane, towards the road; but on flat and horizontal grounds two capstans, each of them manned with thirty-two men, proved sufficient to move the rock. After the first motion was impressed, it advanced with the utmost ease. The men ran, whilst turning the capstans almost without any effort. Some pretty considerable acclivities were to be ascended; and then four, and sometimes six capstans, always manned with thirty-two men each, were employed.

The signals were always given by two drummers posted on the rock; all the motions were very regular; the fatigue being equally divided, was not hard for any individual. Thus the rock advanced from eighty to two hundred fathoms a day, where not obstructed by acclivities, or impracticable roads; and we must remember that a winter day lasts but four or five hours, in those regions.

During the march of the rock, both the stone-masons at its sides, and the forge established on its top, continued their work. The sledges tied to it, carried all that was necessary for this purpose; and the sight of a rock thus marching at the call of the two Russian Amphions on its top, drew crowds of spectators from every quarter. At the end of six weeks it arrived on the banks of the river, where a bark of one hundred and eighty feet in length, and drawing only eight feet of water, lay ready to receive it. It was filled with water, in order to make it rest on the bottom of the river: the bark was opened on the side, where the rock was to enter, which was drawn horizontally to the midst of the rake, by two capstans fixed in a vessel at anchor. When the rock arrived there, the workmen first repaired the side of the bark, and then began to pump the water out,

out, but soon found the bark bent under the enormous weight, and leaky on every side. Count Carburi, however, without being discouraged by this unfortunate accident, had her head and stern loaded with stones; and the load being thus made equal every where, the bark recovered her level. A vessel was then posted on each side, to which the bark was fixed with cables, and thus eased, kept steady, and supported against the agitation of the waves. On the 22d of September, the day on which the anniversary of the empress's coronation was celebrated at Peterburgh, the rock at length arrived before her palace, on purpose, as it were, to pay its respectful obeysance to her majesty.

Its disembarkation proved not less difficult and operose than its embarkation had been. The bark was not now to be sunk to the bottom; they were obliged to drive piles, and to cut these off eight feet below the surface of the water, to serve as a basis for the bark to rest on: her head and stern were supported by two rakes, propped on each side by three masts; six large masts were laid across, reaching to a loaded ship on the other side of the bark, and constituted an equilibrium to the weight of the rock; and by these means the rock was at last drawn on shore, and conveyed to the place of its final destination.

The success of this Herculean undertaking sufficiently evinces the spirit and genius of its author. It has given him occasions to reflect on mechanical powers and resistances; it has led him to ideas applicable to other mechanical projects; and he has made models and trials, which he intends to publish.

One essential caution forcibly impressed on this noble author by a painful, long, and dangerous experience, must not be omitted here. This rock lay in the midst of a morass. Whenever a number of people must be employed in a similar situation on any considerable work, the best and surest way will be, to begin with entirely draining the morass, if possible. This will not only facilitate their labours, but also secure them against the diseases which, but for this precaution, would be unavoidable. No constitution, however strong, is proof against the effects of the foul vapours, the humidity, and other inconveniences felt in morasses. These foul vapours injure especially the health of those who, being entrusted with the direction of such enterprises, have no leisure for violent bodily exercises. Count Carburi felt himself weakened and afflicted by a general languor, a disordered stomach, violent rheumatic pains in all his joints; by the scurvy, and an excruciating tooth-ache; he almost lost his teeth; and long fevers brought him to the brink of the grave. Every remedy proved ineffectual; and it was only the use of oranges, lemons, and acids in general, a violent and continual exercise, frictions over all the body, and chiefly his journeys into hot countries, that stopped at last the progress of his diseases.

To the narrative of these mechanical proceedings, an account of the chemical process for ascertaining the nature of this rock, by M. de Carburi, a consulting physician to the king of France, has been subjoined; by which the rock appears to be a granite.

Count Carburi has taken this opportunity to explain the motives which had formerly induced him to assume the name of Chevalier de Lascary, by which he has hitherto been known. A passion always impetuous in youth, but infinitely more so in southern climates, had formerly betrayed him into an act of violent rashness, which his youth might indeed extenuate, but which his heart must have

have detested, and which the laws could not fail to prosecute. He therefore banished himself from his native country; and on leaving it, resolved also to change his name, but to chuse another not entirely foreign to him. His family had originally been settled in the Peloponnese, or Morea, and afterwards in Candia; they were related to some of the most ancient and considerable families, which the revolutions of the eastern empire had forced to seek refuge in Cephalonia, and among others, to that of Lascary. This name he therefore borrowed, firmly determined to support its dignity, and thus to render himself worthy of reassuming that which he had inherited from his ancestors with the best examples. He is now recalled to his native country, Cephalonia. In this once warlike and unfortunate, but at present peaceable and happy island, he now enjoys the finest climate and the sweetest retirement, and contemplates with pleasure and surprize the lagunes of Venice giving laws to a part of Greece; and a princess born on the banks of the Elbe, cherishing the laws of Rome, and the arts of Athens, among the Hyperboreans.'

Our readers will surely join with us in wishing that count Carburi may long enjoy the delights of his present situation, and employ his leisure and genius for the further improvement of arts and sciences.

Count Carburi, professor of chemistry at Padoua, who has discovered the secret of preparing a sort of paper which will not burn or take fire, and whose invaluable discovery has by the senate of Venice been rewarded by a medal struck in honour of him, seems to be a near and worthy relation to our noble Carburi of Cephalonia.

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*Oratio de Re Militari.* 8vo. Goettingen.

THIS sensible and elegant discourse was originally delivered by its author lieutenant-colonel De Grothausz, in an extraordinary meeting of the Royal Society of Sciences at Goettingen, honoured with the presence of his serene highness prince Charles of Hesse. It contains judicious and interesting reflexions on military affairs, with plausible proposals of some improvements.

Every reader acquainted with ancient history, and capable of entering on a comparison of the exploits of the ancient Roman with those of modern troops, will readily allow that the moderns, notwithstanding all their drilling, training, and exercising, are yet, in point of bodily strength, vigour, health, durableness, agility, and consequently of serviceableness, greatly inferior to the ancient Romans; accordingly the neglect of forming and inuring the bodies of modern soldiers to the labours and fatigues of war, has been frequently and severely arraigned by the ablest writers on that art.

Mr. de Grothausz too insists on the necessity and expediency of restoring the corporeal exercises, especially those of running and of swimming; after the example of the ancients and the precepts of Vegetius; and it is indeed evident, that a body of troops thus trained would, at first, so far have a visible and considerable superiority over all other troops, deficient in those respects.

Some appendages in our modern soldiery appear hurtful and destructive to the agility, health, and durableness of the troops; for instance, the cumbersome knapsacks pressing against the breasts of the infantry, and the portmanteaus of the cavalry. These incumbrances

our author wishes to see removed. He proposes to furnish both the officers and soldiers of every company with a number of blue shirts, to be changed together at stated times, then washed, and on marches carried on horseback, with a supply of stockings and shoes. These alterations would be best promoted by the cheerful example of the officers.

Of the two different methods of inspiring troops with bravery and spirit, either by concealing the degree, or even the reality of dangers from them, or by diverting their attention to some other object; our author rejects the former, and, we think, with very good reason, since it appears apt to produce both rashness and panics; and as to the latter, he proposes again to introduce trophies, military rewards, triumphal processions, statues, &c. We think, however, the renewal of some of those ancient institutions, liable to great objections in our modern times and manners.

*Beati Flacci Albini, seu Alcuini, Abbatis Caroli Magni, Regis ac Imperatoris, Magistri, Opera, post primam Editionem, a Viro clarissimo D. Andrea Quercetano curatam, de novo collecta, multis Locis emendata & Opusculis primum repertis plurimum aucta variisque Modis illustrata, Cura & Studio Frobenii, S. R. I. Principis & Abbatis ad S. Emmeranum Ratisbonæ. In 2 Parts, 4 Volumes, Folio. Ratisbon.*

ALCUIN's works are so interesting for the political, ecclesiastical, and literary history of the age of Charlemagne, that any apology for the collection and republication of them would be superfluous. A collection of these valuable works had indeed been already published by Mr. Du Chesne; but his edition is not only become scarce, but has been found very incomplete, and deficient in point of critical accuracy. The present illustrious editor has therefore taken great pains to remedy and supply these essential defects; and his endeavours have been favoured by a great number of MSS. communicated him from Italy, France, Germany, England, and even from Spain; which have enabled him not only to revise and correct such of Alcuin's works as were already published, but to discover and to publish many new, and several very interesting ones. His edition therefore comprises not only all the pieces formerly published by Canisius, Du Chesne, Mabillon, Martene, Baluzius, Pez, and others; but many treatises, letters, and poems, not yet published; the whole arranged in a more methodical order, carefully collated, and illustrated with historical and critical introductions, disquisitions, and notes.

*Histoire de la Republique Romaine, dans le Cours du VII. Siecle, par Salluste. 3 Vols. Quarto. With Plates. Dijon.*

M. R. de Brosses, count of Tournai, and first president in the parliament of Dijon, the very learned and respectable editor and author of this instructive work, was so fond of Sallust's method of treating historical subjects, and so sensible of the loss of that excellent historian's principal work, that he resolved to collect Sallust's fragments with yet greater care than had ever been done before; by the most accurate arrangement to trace out as near as possible the plan and chief features of that work, and then to connect these fragments in the manner of Freinsheimius, whole

whose *Fragmenta Livii* are justly considered as one of the best works on the Roman history. But as Mr. de Brosses soon became sensible of the difficulty of assimilating his Latin diction to that of Sallust, he changed his first design, and resolved on translating both the fragments and his author's histories of the Catalinarian and Jugurthan wars into French, and to attempt to supply the lost work from other ancient writers.

The first volume of Mr. de Brosses' work opens with a preface, containing judicious remarks on the various methods of writing histories; and an introduction, giving general informations concerning Roman names, ranks (*ordines*), magistracies, and elections. The body of the work itself begins with a translation of, and commentary on Sallust's Jugurthan war. The notes subjoined to this part treat chiefly of the geography and population of Africa: the text is moreover illustrated with a map of Africa, designed by Mr. de Brosses for his Sallust; a plan of Metellus's march against Jugurtha, and its illustration by a military connoisseur. After this translation and commentary follow the two first books of Mr. de Brosses' restoration of Sallust's five books of histories, from page 247—646.

The second volume contains the third, fourth, and fifth books of the same work, in 676 pages; comprising the war with Mithridates, so fruitful in great and various events; a description of the Pontus Euxinus, with the adjacent countries; the Gladiatorian war, raised by Spartacus; and the war of Creta.

The third volume (of 500 pages) contains a translation of the Catalinarian war, with its sequel; illustrated with a great number and variety of historical and political notes; Sallust's two letters to Cæsar, commonly styled *Orat. de Rep. Ordinanda*, and considered by Mr. de Brosses as genuine; a very minute collection of all the notices of Sallust's life, writings, gardens, buildings, and even of the remains discovered in later times. The whole work concludes with Abbé Cassagne's sensible *Essay on the Art of composing History, and on the Works of Sallust*, and a necessary and useful historical index.

It is decorated with elegant portraits of Marius, Sylla, Bocchus, Pompeius, Mithridates, Cicero, Cæsar, Cato, Sallust, and Mr. de Brosses; and seven plates, representing ancient coins.

*Discours choisis sur divers Sujets de Religion & de Littérature. Par M. l'Abbé Maury, &c. 12mo. Paris.*

THESE select Discourses will do equal credit to the head and heart of their author. They consist of an eulogy on the celebrated Fenelon, archbishop of Cambray; a panegyric on St. Louis; another on St. Austin; reflexions on the sermons of Bossuet; and, what we think more generally interesting to foreign readers, a very judicious and sensible discourse on the eloquence of the pulpit, containing useful reflexions on eloquence in general, and on its several parts; and very interesting particulars concerning the French preachers, who have distinguished themselves by the power and effects of their eloquence, especially Mr. Bridaine and St. Vincent de Paul.

The character of the latter, as drawn by Mr. Maury, is an honour to humanity. A man of a sublime virtue, though but little known; the best citizen France ever had; the apostle of humanity; who, after being a shepherd in his infancy, has left in his native

country institutions more useful to the unfortunate than the finest establishments of his sovereign Lewis the Fourteenth.\*

This Vincent de Paul was successively a slave at Tunis, (and probably it was this circumstance that for ever after warmed his zeal for the relief of the distressed: non ignara mali, miseris succurrere disco); preceptor to cardinal de Retz, a country curate, general almoner of the galleys, chief of the missionaries, &c. He established, in France, the Lazarists, the nuns *de la charité*, who devote themselves to the relief and consolation of the unhappy; he founded hospitals for foundlings, orphans, lunatics, galley-slaves, and for old people. His generous pity extended itself to every species of misfortune incident to mankind, and memorials of his beneficence are to be met with in all the provinces of France.— While kings in arms desolated the earth, already afflicted with other calamities, the son of a poor labourer in Gascony repaired these national afflictions to the utmost of his power, and diffused more than twenty millions of livres, in Champagne, Picardy, Lorrain, and Artois, where whole villages of poor people were dying of famine, and their bodies left in the fields unburied, till Vincent de Paul charged himself with the payment of the expence of their burial. For some time his zeal and charity were employed in preaching to, and comforting the galley-slaves. Beholding one of these unhappy men, condemned to a three-years slavery for smuggling, who seemed inconsolable for having left his wife and children in the utmost wretchedness and want, Vincent de Paul offered to take his place; and, what will hardly be believed, his offer was accepted. This virtuous man was chained down among the galley-slaves, and his feet continued for ever after swollen, from the weight of those honourable fetters he had worn.

When Vincent de Paul came to Paris, foundlings were, in Saint Landry street, sold at the rate of twenty sols per head, or else given away, by way of charity, to sick women, who wanted these innocent creatures for drawing off their corrupt milk. Almost all these children, thus abandoned by government to the commiseration of the publick, perished, and such of them as happened to escape so many dangers, were clandestinely introduced into wealthy families, and made to usurp the property of lawful heirs. Vincent de Paul at first provided for the support of twelve foundlings, and soon after, his charity was enabled to provide for all such as were exposed at the gates of churches. But the new fervour always inspired by new institutions, having cooled, their support entirely failed, and the former outrages to humanity were going to begin anew. Vincent de Paul was not discouraged. He called an extraordinary meeting; caused a very great number of these unfortunate foundlings to be placed in the church, instantly ascended the pulpit, and with eyes streaming with tears, thus addressed his audience:

‘ My ladies, compassion and charity have induced you to adopt these little creatures for your children; by God’s grace you have been their mothers, since their natural mothers have abandoned them: consider now, whether you will abandon them too. Cease now to be their mothers, and become their judges; their lives and deaths are in your hands . . . If you continue charitably to support them, they will live; if you abandon them, they all must die.’

His exhortation was answered with sobs from every quarter; and in that very spot and instant, the Foundling Hospital of Paris was founded, and endowed with forty thousand livres annual rent.

\* But

‘But Vincent de Paul’s whole life was a continual series of charitable actions, whose fruits we still enjoy. He lived to the age of eighty-five years. On the day of his death he was very sleepy. His friends asked him the cause of that continual slumber. He answered, smiling: “ ‘Tis the brother (le sommeil, or sleep) come to announce his sister (la mort, or death.)”’ Never was nature so heartily forgiven the necessity of dying. S. Vincent de Paul’s misfortune was, (if however it be a misfortune, to be little praised and even little known,) not to have been celebrated at his death, in 1661, by that eloquent Bossuet, who immortalized all his heroes; and who, at that very time, was composing funeral orations on much less worthy subjects.

A misfortune for Vincent de Paul not to have been celebrated by Bossuet!—Say rather, it was a misfortune for Bossuet not to have celebrated S. Vincent de Paul! Far from degrading his genius by fulsome homages paid to rank and power, in the pulpit, he would then have immortalized himself by a heart-felt tribute paid to unassuming and transcendent worth, to sincere ardent charity, and to useful eloquence.

As for Vincent de Paul, surely he needed no reward that mankind could bestow or with-hold. Though mistaken, or unknown by men, his intentions and actions were their own reward. No triumphal entry can ever have yielded a conqueror an internal pleasure comparable to what he must have felt, when he was the instrument thus in a few minutes to provide for the support of thousands and hundred thousands of innocent helpless fellow creatures. His own heart applauded him, and his action was recorded in the book of life.

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### FOREIGN LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

*De Animalium ex Mephitis et noxiis Halitibus interitu ejusque proprie-ribus Causis Libri tres.* Auct. Bassiano Carminato. 4to. Lodi.

IN order to discover and ascertain the effects of a variety of noxious and poisonous vapours on the sensible and irritable parts of different animals, signor Bassiano has subjected a great number of unfortunate fowls, birds, cats, frogs, &c. to many curious and fatal experiments, and here given an accurate and instructive account of their result.

of Jo. Schraderi *Liber Emendationum.* 4to. Leuwarden.

Containing, in thirteen chapters, a great number of critical emendations of corrupt passages, in 1. Catullus. 2. and 3. The Culex and the Ciris, 5—9. Propertius; 10—12. Ovid; interspersed with many quotations, emendations, and illustrations of passages of other writers, together with confutations of several opinions of other critics, whom he has however treated with candour and moderation.

L. A. G. Schrader’s *Grund Gesetze der Natur in der Geburt, dem Leben und Tode der Menschen;*—or, *Fundamental Laws of Nature in the Birth, Life, and Death of Mankind.* 1. Vol. 8vo. (German) Glückstadt.

A free but judicious, accurate, and methodical abstract of the late Mr. Süssmuth’s celebrated work on political arithmetic, improved with several valuable additions.

**Anton. Brugman's Magnetismus, seu de Affinitatibus Magneticis Observations Academicæ. 4to. Leyden**

How little all the properties of the load-stone have hitherto been known, will appear from an attentive perusal of these very curious Observations, founded on the most accurate and repeated experiments.

**Essai sur la Mineralogie du Bailliage d'Orgelet, en Franche-Comté, &c. par M. le Marquis de Marneffe, &c. Besançon.**

The district in question appears from this account to be very rich in various fossils and minerals; but the author has contented himself with enumerating them, and recommending their search and use to his countrymen, without pointing out their respective arrangement, position, thickness and direction of their strata.

**L'Eloquence, Poème didactique en six Chants; par M. l'Abbé de la Serre. Paris.**

The subject of this didactic poem is fine, and the poet by no means destitute of talents: but many of his thoughts are not sufficiently digested, some of them are erroneous; and his diction is not, what the style of every didactic poem ought to be, *simplex mun-  
diciis.*

In the first canto he considers the Influence of Sensibility on Eloquence; in the second, the Influence of Taste; in the third, that of Virtue; in the fourth, that of the Form of Government; in the fifth, the Influence of Learning and Knowledge; in the sixth, the Effects of Eloquence.

**Récherches sur la Préparation que les Romains donnaient à la Chaux dont ils se servoient pour leurs Constructions, & sur la Composition & l'Emploi de leurs Mortiers. Par M. De la Faye. 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris.**

A work containing fine experiments, and excellent reflexions; written with perspicuity, precision, and elegance.

**Atlas Céleste de Flamsteed. Par M. J. Fortin, &c. 8o. Copper Plates. in Quarto, with 48 8vo. Pages of Letter-press. Paris.**

Containing Mr. Flamsteed's maps reduced to one third of their size, and designed for 1780; with some additions and improvements. The work has been approved by the Parisian Academy of Sciences; this is the second ed.

**Del Gius naturale, divino, ricauato, ed illustrato da una nuova Analisi dell' Uomo per una Dimonstrazione e Chiarificazione originaria e particolare del Sistema cattolico. 2 Vols. Quarto. Florence.**

A profound sage, 'exempt,' as he himself protests, 'from all party spirit and every prejudice,' here gravely undertakes, with only the book of nature in his hand, to analyze and investigate the constitution of human nature, and of human society, and thus at once to settle every dispute between believers and unbelievers.

Accordingly he demonstrates that, since the law of nature is a divine law, it is hierarchy that constitutes the main spring and fundamental power of every human society; and from the impulse of human nature towards infinity, resolutely deduces—the universal and transcendent power of the pope—bishops—celibacy—the ten commandments—all the seven sacraments—the mystery of the holy Trinity—and, indeed, the whole system of faith of the most orthodox catholic Christian.

**Eduardi Sandifort, Anat. & Chir. Prof. Observations Anatomico-pathologicae.** 4to. With 8 Plates. Leyden.

A valuable collection of remarks and observations, concerning either deviations from the natural structure of the human body, or remarkable effects of diseases. Some of these observations are peculiarly curious, and illustrated with plates.

**Expositio brevis Locorum S. S. ad Orientem sese referentium—ex Observationibus certis plerumque propriis Instituta,** à D. Chr. Wilh. Ludeke. 8vo. Halle.

These Observations are digested under the general heads of climate, agriculture, animals, domestic life, travelling, towns, political and ecclesiastical state of the East. Most of them were made on the spot by the author; and though they contain little or nothing new, yet as they were made by an eye-witness, they may serve to confirm the observations of former travellers on the same subjects, and for the same purpose.

**Théâtre de M. Bret, des Académies de Dijon & de Nanci.** 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris.

Several of the dramatic pieces contained in this collection, have from the first met with great applause, and are now standing plays, such as, l'Ecole Amoureuse; and la Double Extravagance. The others, as les Faux Génereux; le Jaloux; l'Humeur à l'Epreuve; la Maison, an imitation from the Trinummus of Plautus; le Protecteur Bourgeois; les Lettres Anonymes; and les Deux Julies; are also not destitute of merit.

**Demi-Drames, ou petites Pièces propres à l'Education des Enfans; par M. de S. Marc.** Première Partie. Paris.

The design of these short plays is meritorious and well executed. This first part contains: la Vanité corrigée; la Confiance mal placée, and l'Amour filial.

**Ant. Canestrini, M. D. Monita Medico-politica ad non paucos eosque potissimum Habitatores Ruris.** Caschaw in Hungary.

A short treatise consisting of three chapters. The first contains chiefly instructions for recovering persons apparently dead; the second is levelled against some superstitious notions of the common people, concerning the causes and remedies of several diseases, especially nervous ones. The third is pointed against nostrums, quacks, and old female physicians. The whole appears to be calculated for the county of Maramarosch, on the frontiers of Poland.

**Museum Virorum Lucernatum Fama & Meritis illustrium quorum Imagines ad vivum depictæ visuntur.** 4to. Lucern.

The Lucern worthies noticed in this work, are some writers, politicians, soldiers, and clergymen; the most remarkable among these, for foreigners, are, Louis Pfyffer, an officer of distinction in the service of France, who with his Swiss troops conducted the French court, then afraid to be surprised by the protestants, and unprotected by any national troops, into a place of safety, and constantly repelled the frequent attacks of the enemy's cavalry; and another Louis Pfyffer, a lieutenant-general in the French service, who with incredible pains, dangers, and expence, actually employs himself in representing a part of the mountains of Switzerland, in an accurate model made of a kind of paste; where every hill and mountain's size and figure are distinctly expressed, and almost every individual house may be instantly known. A very

extensive, stupendous, and, without any exaggeration, unparalleled work!

*Lettres de M. Alexandre Volta, &c. sur l'Air inflammable des Marais, auxquelles on a ajouté trois Lettres du même Auteur, tirées du Journal de Milan, traduites de l'Italien.* 8vo. Strasburgh.

Valuable for several new, curious, and interesting observations and discoveries.

*Le parfait Boulanger, ou Traité complet sur la Fabrication & le Commerce du Pain.* Par M. Parmentier, &c. 8vo. Paris.

A capital and interesting work.

*Corr s'ondane d'un jeune Militaire, ou Mémoires du Marquis de Lusigni & d' Hortense de Saint Jult.* 2 vols. 12mo. Verdun & Paris.

A well written and entertaining novel.

*Relazione del Fulmine caduto nell Conduttore della pubbica Specola di Padova. A sua Eccellenza il Signor Angelo Quirini, Senatore.* 4to. Padova.

Some observations tending to evince the great use of conductors, and to shew that one single point is by no means sufficient to secure an extensive building from the effects of lightning.

*Le Cartusse Epistolaire démasqué, ou Epître très-familière à M. le Marquis Caraccioli, Colonel in Partibus, Editeur, & comme qui de droit Auteur des Lettres attribuées au Pape Clement XIV.* 8vo. Paris.

The author of this very furious and virulent attack takes a great deal of unnecessary pains to prove what was already sufficiently known, that most of the valuable letters published under the name of Galganelli, were never written by that pope. Mr. Caraccioli's éme in the eyes of this antagonist, seems to consist in his encoumbrance on the destroyer of the order of the Jesuits.

*Recherches & Considérations sur la Population de la France.* Par M. Mobeau. 8vo. Paris.

This work is said to be the completest that has hitherto appeared in France upon the subject. It consists of two parts. In the first, the author has collected, analised, and discussed a great number of facts concerning the whole population of France, the proportion of the number of the individuals of both sexes; the average duration of life; the mortality of the different ages, &c. In the second, he examines the influence of physical and moral causes on the state of population.

*Habacuc Vates olim Hebræus, in primis ipsius Hymnus, denuo illustratus. Adjecta est Versio Theotisca.* 8vo. Frankfurt and Leipzig.

A short but excellent commentary, accompanied with a good translation.

*Vi Pomona Franconica. Description des Arbres Fruitiers les plus connus & les plus estimés en Europe, qui se cultivent maintenant au Jardin à poce de l'cur de Wurzbourg.* Vol. 1st. French and German. Quarto. With 42 fine coloured Plates. Nurnberg.

A capital and classical work for gardeners.

MONTHLY

## MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

## DIVINITY.

*A Sermon preached at St. Mary's Church, in Oxford, on Thursday, July 2, 1778, on Occasion of the Anniversary Meeting of the Governors of the Radcliffe Infirmary. By John Lord Bishop of Oxford. 4to. 1s. Rivington.*

THE learned and judicious author of this discourse explains the principles of benevolence and charity, inculcated by the Jewish law, and the Christian revelation. And where the poor are too numerous to be fully and effectually relieved by individuals, he points out the proper mode of selecting objects, and exerting our beneficence in the most useful and effectual manner. This naturally introduces some general observations in favour of the Radcliffe infirmary.

*The Beneficial Effects of Harmony. A Sermon preached at the Meeting of Three Choirs in the Cathedral Church of Gloucester, on Wednesday the 9th of September, 1778. By S. Glasse, D. D. F. R. S. 4to. 1s. Rivington.*

The meeting of the three choirs, in the cathedral church of Gloucester, is intended to promote a charitable establishment for the benefit of the widows and orphans of the clergy. Dr. Glasse very properly recommends this benevolent institution, and vindicates the admission of harmony into the solemnities of religion, by shewing its beneficial influence on the human affections.

*Popery a perfect Contrast to the Religion of Christ: proved in a Sermon preached at Clapham, November 5, 1758. And published at the Desire of the Congregation. Now republished, with Additions, and addressed to Protestant Parents. By H. Venn, A. M. 8vo. 6d. Crowder.*

The text is taken from James iii. 17. 'The wisdom from above is first pure, then peaceable, gentle, and easy to be entreated, full of mercy and good fruits, without partiality, and without hypocrisy.'

The author describes the origin of Christianity, and its distinguishing characteristics, contrasting with them the origin, tenets, and spirit of popery. The former, he says, is derived from heaven, the latter from popes, fathers, councils, and traditions. Its votaries are taught to exalt the pope of Rome above all earthly potentates, and offer incense to him with prostration and adoration, to worship graven images without number, to call upon a multitude of inferior mediators, to believe the doctrines of transubstantiation and purgatory, to depend on the efficacy of indulgences, confession, and absolution. Christianity is peaceable, gentle, merciful. Popery supports her usurpations by bulls, interdicts, excommunications, anathemas, persecutions, massacres,

sacres, and inquisitions. Christianity is without partiality. Popery has the most bigotted partiality for her doctrines and practices, condemning all protestants, and confining salvation within her own pale. Christianity despises an ignorant assent to truth, and every act of religion, that is without understanding and sincerity. Popery teaches her votaries to offer up their prayers in an unknown tongue, and content themselves with the mere repetition of prayers, called the opus operatum. She pretends to honour the name of Christ, when she robs him of his real glory, by depriving the people of the scriptures, by exacting an implicit obedience to her decrees, and interpretations of scripture, by refusing the cup to the laity, by ascribing pardon of sin to the power of the pope, justification to the merit of good works, purification to the fire of purgatory, and salvation to the blessed Virgin.

In this manner the author compares Christianity and popery, in order to guard his protestant readers against the errors of the latter.

#### CONTROVERSIAL.

*Popery vindicated from several vulgar Aspersions, with a Justification of its Votaries, in taking the Oath of Allegiance, and a few Protestant Objections bumbly submitted to their Solution. In some Letters, occasioned by the Dialogues of the Rev. James Smith, in his Apology for his Apostacy.* 8vo. 6d. Bew.

This publication consists of six or eight letters, loosely and inaccurately written, and some time since published in the London Packet, and other evening papers, on subjects sufficiently explained in the foregoing title page.

#### POLITICAL.

*An Address to both Houses of Parliament, respecting the present State of Public Affairs: with a particular Address to the Bench of Bishops.* 8vo. 1s. Robson.

The design of this Address is to shew, that we are a very depraved, licentious, and sinful people; that we have abused the goodness of divine Providence, and neglected to seek his aid and direction in our national concerns; and that if we have any regard for our properties, our liberties, our lives; the welfare of our country, and the glory of the British empire, we must immediately commence a general reformation. In promoting this important work, he tells us, that the clergy and the magistrate should exert themselves in their respective capacities, and set a good example; that the former should constantly and earnestly preach the doctrines of the first thirteen articles of the church, and the latter enforce the laws of the land against atrocious offenders; that a fast should be appointed every six months, during the present war, &c. — A picus, well-intended performance.

*An authentic Account of the Part taken by the late Earl of Chatham in a Transaction which passed in the Beginning of the Year 1778.* 4to. 6d. Almon.

The correspondence contained in this account, with Dr. Addington's annexed Narrative, lately appeared in the public papers; and from comparing them with the declaration of sir James Wright, and the more ample and satisfactory one of lord Mountstuart, we cannot help being of opinion, that the whole transaction is a compound of well meant officiousness and mistaken insinuation; too vague and unauthorised, either to impute any ministerial overture to one of the noble lords, or to do honour to the memory of the other.

### P O E T R Y.

*An Ode addressed to the Scotch Junto, and their American Commission, on their late Quarrel between Commissioner Ed-n and Commissioner J-hn-st-ne.* 4to. 1s. 6d. Bew.

The author of this publication is a bold, active, and a poignant satirist. In his various attacks on Wesley and the methodists, he endeavours to extirpate 'fanatics, hypocrites, and impostures,' out of the church. In his political productions, addressed to lord North, lord Mansfield, lord G. Germaine, and others, he attempts to explode our present system of politics, and reform the state. A common satirist would content himself with brandishing his quill, and scourging an obnoxious junto in metaphor. But this furious Drawcansir calls for the poniard, and exclaims in this vehement language: 'Where, or when will Britain, insulted by a Scottish junto, find another Felton?'

*The Favourite; a Character from the Life. Addressed to the sovereign Minion of the Times, on the much-lamented Death of the patriotic Earl of Chatham.* 4to. 2s. Bew.

This is the production of the ardent, indefatigable, and intrepid author of the Junto. It is, like the rest of his pieces, outrageously sarcastic. Here lord Bute is the object of his vindictive zeal; the victim of his scalping-knife.

*Ecclesiastical Gallantry: or, the Mystery unravelled, a Tale. Dedicated to his Grace the Archbishop of Canterbury, without Permission.* 4to. 2s. Bew.

The dedication of this poetical jeu d'esprit, which solely relates to the late rector and curate of St. Anne's, is a proof, that when a writer wants to indulge himself in a little witty spleen, he can always find a pretence for satirizing a respectable character.

*Windsor; an Ode sacred to the Birth-Day of her Royal Highness the Princess Royal of England.* 4to. 1s. Robinson.

In this piece, Denham, Cowley, and Pope, are supposed to return from the shades, and appear to the bard at Windsor; where

where they celebrate the birth-day of her royal highness, according to the custom of poets, in a few complimentary stanzas. The style of these eminent writers is imitated with very moderate success.

*A Monody (after the Manner of Milton's Lycidas) on the Death of Mr. Linley; who was drowned August the 5th, 1778, in a Canal at Grimpsthorne, in Lincolnshire, the Seat of his Grace the Duke of Ancaster.* 4*to.* 1*s.* Wilkie.

Milton's Lycidas was occasioned by the death of a learned friend, who was drowned in his passage from Chester to Ireland, in 1637. It is enlivened with a variety of beautiful descriptive imagery: in the conclusion the lamenting shepherds are comforted by an assurance, that the deceased is received into 'the kingdom of joy and love'. The present Monody, on the death of Mr. Linley, is an imitation of Lycidas, but not comparable to that celebrated poem in its chief excellence, its enchanting imagery. Linlæus is not conveyed like Lycidas into the superior regions, but into the grotto of the Naiades, where he is married to one of those aquatic nymphs. This lady, it seems, is not only exquisitely beautiful, but possessed of more valuable qualifications:

' Her agate CHARIOT studded o'er with GEMS,  
Which waited on the margin of the stream,  
Bore to her crystal grot the happy pair;  
Where, rapt in nuptial bliss, they fondly dream,  
Nor fear th' approach of love-destroying care;  
There, happy shall they live devoid of pain,  
And mutual harmony for ever reign.'

*The Enraptured Swain: A Pastoral Poem.* 4*to.* 1*s. 6d.* Wilkie.

A simple tale, in the style of Chevy Chace, or the Babes in the Wood.

*Peace. A Poem.* 4*to.* 1*s. 6d.* Bew.

Poets are supposed to have the peculiar privilege of stretching, shortening, slashing, lopping, and trimming their language, as it suits their purpose. This is termed a poetic licence, and is extremely convenient to ordinary poets. The author of this performance thus extends his literary dwarfs.

- His parched tongue half cleaved to its roof.
- In earth, in heaven, human and divine.
- Averse from heaven is Bellona's train.

On the other hand, when he meets with a refractory syllable, or a polysyllable that is too gigantic, he cuts it shorter, or castrates it in this manner:

- All things replete with's kindly bounty shine.
- This converse deigning from's immortal breast.
- On's low'ring brows.
- The iron rod, in o' balf of lost mankind.
- From tempest's rage and o'veuring blights secure.

If this be not a sufficient proof of the author's abilities, take the following lines. Speaking of fame, he says, it is

' A feather buoyant on the rapid stream,  
By bubbles drawn, that solid globules seem :  
In contact come, th' aerial building falls  
A victim. Thus the long sieg'd Trojan walls,  
Assail'd by hoary Time did yield at last ;  
Alas how soon is human grandeur past !  
Oh men ! vain men ! what shadows ye pursue ;  
E'n shadows shadows to th' Almighty view.'

The whole composition is in the same strain.

### MISCELLANEOUS.

*Miscellanies in Prose and Verse.* By Percival Stockdale. 12mo. 3s. Flexney.

This publication contains a Letter on Travelling; a piece, entitled the Temple of Fortune, translated from the French; the author's Preface to his Translation of Sabbathier's Institutions, with some additional paragraphs; the Character of Lord George Germaine, printed in the Public Advertiser; Observations on Sterne's Letters to Eliza; a Letter to Mrs. Dobson, occasioned by her erroneous quotation of some lines in Mr. Stockdale's translation of Tasso's Aminta, which that lady had prefixed as a motto to her Life of Petrarch; Reflections on the present State of the Republic of Letters, addressed to Mr. Garrick; Remarks on Mr. Macklin's Abilities and Conduct, when he attempted to act Macbeth in 1773: and some poetical bagatelles.

If the reader should observe, that many of these pieces are too insignificant for public attention, the author begs leave to remind him, ' that it is the province of the poet, not only to enforce the important and the serious; but likewise to illuminate and dignify the trivial and the gay.'

*A Physical and Moral Enquiry into the Causes of that internal Restlessness and Disorder in Man, which has been the Complaint of all Ages.* By James Vere, Esq. Small 8vo. 2s. 6d. White.

From this work we learn, that by the influence of different temperaments, a man may be addicted to anger, outrage, and passion: or, on the contrary, may be inclined to sadness and sorrow; or become fearful, lustful, &c. &c.

*Narcissus; or, the Young Man's Entertaining Mirror: containing a humourous Descant on Manners.* Taken from the Spanish Galateo of Don Lucas Gracian de Antisco, and adapted to the Manners of the British Nation, by C. Wileman, N. P. S. T. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Sewed. Bew.

The professed design of this work is to teach persons of both sexes, but especially young men, a genteel carriage and behaviour;

our, according to the sentiments and practice of all well-bred persons, at church, at table, at home, or abroad; in company with superiors, equals, or inferiors; in action, conversation, poetry, music, dancing, fencing, &c.

Gratian is a grave, serious, and sensible author. His directions are delivered in a plain and familiar style; and are calculated to give young people, in common life, a proper sense of decency, complaisance, and good manners.

In the course of this work we meet with several ungrammatical expressions: as, I have *lain* down rules; their garden *lays* neglected; do not *lay* lolling on one side; some misfortune had *beset* them; good manners *does* not require you to give up your judgement; not speaking to any when *drank* to; *more* preferable; he cannot think of obtaining victory in a wrangling dispute, *no more* than in a bloody field; you *was* not heard, &c. But, in general, the language is not contemptible.

*Memoirs of a Clergyman; or, the Character and Ideas of the Rev. Mr. Clegg.* Small 8vo. 3s. Bew.

A plain, simple narrative of the birth, education, amours, and adventures of Mr. Clegg, terminating in his marriage. By some expressions of warmth and acrimony, it appears to be, what the author represents it, a history founded on fact. But this, we apprehend, is a point of more importance to the author, than the reader.

*Grammatical Institutes, or a practical English Grammar: on a Plan entirely new.* By James Wood.

This grammar is divided into two parts. The first consists of definitions, rules, and examples; the second, of exercises or instances of false regimen, bad arrangement, and impropriety of expression, to be rectified by the observations and rules in the first part. This work is drawn up in a plain methodical manner, and abounds with useful examples.

*A Letter to the Right Hon. the Earl of Sandwich. From George Forster, F. R. S.* 4to. 1s. Robinson.

This Letter is to prove that Mr. Forster and his father have not been rewarded sufficiently nor agreeably to contract, for accompanying captain Cooke in his last famous voyage.

Upon the face of this Letter these gentlemen have certainly been ill used; but the smallest weight will cause one scale to subside, when nothing is put into the other. ‘A plague of opinion!’ as Thersites says in Shakespeare—‘a man may wear it on both sides, like a leathern jerkin.’—

*The New Prose Bath Guide, for the Year 1778.* Small 8vo. 2s. 6d. Sewed. Dodsley.

A production of this kind admitted of much more wit and humour, than we find in the performance before us; which appears

pears rather calculated to answer the narrow ends of private probation and personal resentment—What are *strangers* to expect from this writer, when he tells a story of the want of feeling and humanity of ‘an old, rich, lame *relation*;’ who, he says, is ‘a crippled wretch’—and of an ‘honourable lady’ who ‘was twenty years a kept mistress,’ &c.

The following anecdote of Nash will make our readers smile.

‘Nash did not love fighting, nor have we ever met with many men who do, when they can prudently avoid it; but yet Nash knew, that a proof of his prowess was necessary, before he could *pied ferme*, as the French say, over all the parts of his royalty. He therefore, before his sovereign authority was well established, determined to avail himself of the first fair occasion to give an instance of his courage; and an opportunity soon offered. It was, in those days, the fashion for the ladies, especially those of youth and beauty, when they bathed, to have their heads dressed as elegantly for the baths, as they now are for the balls. In this situation, Nash happened to find a beautiful new-married lady bathing in the Cross-bath, when the warmth of the waters had given a natural glow of colour, almost superior even to modern art. While Nash was contemplating this, the highest finished and most pleasing object, which God has given to delight the mind of man, the husband of the lady came to take a look at the partner of his joys, and being no less sensible of the manner her beauty was heightened (by the warmth of the bath) than Nash; he told her she looked more like an angel than a mortal being, and concluded, by wishing himself with her. Nash instantly embraced this occasion of offering his service, and seizing the gentleman by the collar of his bridal-coat, and the waistband of his breeches, threw him souse over the parapet, and then lefe the lovers, like two ducks, to dry their feathers in the sun. The exasperated husband, however, called *the beau out* upon dry land; and Mr. Nash finished his story, by shewing us his right arm, which certainly had been ripped up sufficiently to make him smart for joking so wantonly with *edged tools*. By this double stroke, he, however, shewed himself a man of pleasantry as well as spirit. Two excellent qualifications for a prince, who presides over the pleasures and pastimes of youth.’

Truth has been said to lie in a well—Nash proved, in this instance, that wit lay in a bath.

## CORRESPONDENCE.

To the Authors of the CRITICAL REVIEW.

Gentlemen,

IT is with much reluctance that I give you the trouble of another letter. I would have passed over in silence all the severe, and, I think unjust, strictures on the third volume of my History of Great Britain, contained in the eighth article of your Review for January, if they had affected only my reputation as a writer. But that article contains a charge of a higher nature, which affects my moral character, and accuses me of a crime, of which, if I know my own heart, I am incapable. The charge is contained in the following words (p. 38): ‘ He characterises as a troubadour, or poet, Richard I. of England. And he appeals to the Catalogue of Royal and Noble Authors as his authority. He even asserts that one of the poems of Richard was published in this work. Yet in this work no such poem is to be found; and Mr. Walpole, the ingenious author, is of opinion, that Richard was no poet.’ Now, gentlemen, I beg you will take the trouble to look into Mr. Walpole’s book, second edition, London, A. D. 1759, vol. i. p. 3, 5, where you will find the following words: ‘ However, since this article was written, I have found reason to believe that Richard was actually an author—In the Laurentine library is the king’s sonnet mentioned above, which I have twice transcribed with the greatest exactness.’ Then follows the sonnet in the original language, pages 6, 7, 8. From this I took the first stanza and translated it, because many of my readers might not understand the Provençal language of the 12th century. I did not indeed mention the edition of Mr. Walpole’s very curious work, from which I quoted, because I did not imagine that any body read the first edition, when a second one, corrected and enlarged, had been published above eighteen years, with which all men of learning are well acquainted.

As I hope you are now convinced that I am not guilty of the heavy charge brought against me—of asserting a falsehood, I am persuaded you will not refuse to publish this short dispassionate vindication of myself. I am,

Gentlemen,

Edinburgh,

Your most humble servant,

March 24, 1778.

ROBERT HENRY.

The publication of the above Letter will, we hope, be considered as a proof of our candour—The Reviewer of Dr. Henry’s third volume has now seen the second edition of The Catalogue of Royal and Noble Authors; and desires the doctor to compare it, at p. 6. vol. I. with his History of Great Britain, p. 503, vol. III.

